ACCOUNT OF FURNESS ABBEY, IN LANCASHIRE.

With a VIEW *of its magnificent Remains.*

THE venerable ruins of Furneſs Abbey are ſituate near Dalton, in the fertile plains of Low Furneſs, hemmed in by mountains on the one ſide, and the ſea on the other. The following intereſting deſcription of this abbey is thus related by Mrs. Ratcliffe:—

In a cloſe glen, branching from this valley, ſhrouded by winding banks clumped with old groves of oak and cheſtnut, we found the magnificent remains of Furneſs Abbey. The deep retirement of its ſituation, the venerable grandeur of its Gothic arches, and the luxuriant yet ancient trees, that ſhadow this forſaken ſpot, are circumſtances of picturesque, and, if the expreſſion may be allowed, of ſentimental beauty, which fill the mind with ſolemn, yet delightful emotion. This glen is called the Vale of Nightſhade, or, more literally, from its ancient title Bekangſgill, 'the glen of deadly nightſhade,' that plant being abundantly found in the neighbourhood. Its romantic gloom, and ſequeſtered privacy, particularly adapted it to the auſterities of monaſtic life; and in the moſt retired part of it, king Stephen, while earl of Mortaign and Bulloign, founded, in the year 1127, the magnificent monaſtery of Furneſs, and endowed it with princely wealth and almoſt princely authority, in which it was ſecond only to Fontain's Abbey, in Yorkſhire.

The windings of the glen conceal theſe venerable ruins, till they are cloſely approached; and the bye-road that conducted us is margined with a few ancient oaks, which ſtretch their broad branches entirely acroſs it, and are fine preparatory objects to the ſcene beyond. A ſudden bend in this road brought us within view of the northern gate of the abbey, a beautiful Gothic arch, one ſide of which is luxuriantly feſtooned with nightſhade. A thick grove of plane trees, with ſome oak and beech, overſhadow it on the right, and lead the eye onward to the ruins of the abbey, ſeen through this dark arch in remote perſpective, over rough but verdant ground. The principal features are the great northern window, and part of the eaſtern choir, with glimpſes of ſhattered arches and ſtately walls beyond, caught between the gaping caſements. On the left, the bank of the glen is broken into knolls, capped with oaks, which, in ſome places, ſpread downward to a ſtream that winds round the ruin, and darken it with their rich foliage. Through this gate is the entrance to the immediate precincts of the abbey, an area ſaid to contain ſixty-five acres, now called the Deer-park. It is incloſed by a ſtone wall, on which the remains of many ſmall buildings, and the faint veſtiges of others, ſtill appear; ſuch as the porter's lodge, mills, granaries, ovens, and kilns, that once ſupplied the monaſtery; ſome of which, ſeen under the ſhade of the fine old trees that on every ſide adorn the broken ſteeps of this glen, have a very intereſting effect.

Juſt within the gate, a ſmall manor houſe of modern date, with its ſtables and other offices, breaks diſcordantly upon the lonely grandeur of the ſcene. Except this, the character of the deſerted ruin is ſcrupulouſly preſerved in the ſurrounding area; no ſpade has dared to level the inequalities which fallen fragments have occaſioned in the ground, or ſhears to clip the wild fern and underwood that overſpread it; but every circumſtance conſpires to heighten the ſolitary grace of the principal object, and to prolong the luxurious melancholy which the view of it inſpires. We made our way among the pathleſs fern and graſs to the north end of the church, now, like every other part of the abbey, entirely rooſleſs, but ſhowing the lofty arch of the great window, where, in-

ſtead of the painted glaſs that once enriched it, are now tufted plants and wreaths of nightſhade. Below is the principal door of the church, bending into a deep round arch, which retiring circle within circle, is rich and beautiful; the remains of a winding ſtair-caſe are viſible within the wall on its left ſide. Near this northern end of the edifice is ſeen one ſide of the eaſtern choir, with its two ſlender Gothic window frames; and on the weſt, a remnant of the nave of the abbey, and ſome lofty arches, which once belonged to the belfry, now detached from the main building.

To the ſouth, but concealed from this point of view, are the chapter-houſe, ſome years ago exhibiting a roof of beautiful Gothic fret-work, and which was almoſt the only part of the abbey thus ornamented, its architecture having been characteriſed by an air of grand ſimplicity rather than by the elegance and richneſs of decoration, which, in an after date, diſtinguiſhed the Gothic ſtyle in England. Over the chapter-houſe were once the library and ſcriptorium; and beyond it are ſtill the remains of cloiſters, of the refectory, the locutorium, or converſation room, and the calefactory. Theſe, with the walls of ſome chapels, of the veſtry, a hall, and of what is believed to have been a ſchool-houſe, are all the features of this noble edifice that can eaſily be traced: winding ſtair-caſes within the ſurpriſing thickneſs of the walls, and door-cases involved in darkneſs and myſtery, the place abounds with.

The abbey, which was formerly of ſuch magnitude as nearly to fill up the breadth of the glen, is built of a pale-red ſtone, dug from the neighbouring rocks, now changed by time and weather to a tint of duſky brown, which accords well with the hues of plants and ſhrubs that every where emboſs the mouldering arches.

The fineſt view of the ruin is on the eaſt ſide, where, beyond the vaſt ſhattered frame that once contained a richly painted window, is ſeen a perſpective of the choir and of diſtant arches, remains of the nave of the abbey, cloſed by the woods. This perſpective of the ruin is ſaid to be 287 feet in length; the choir part of it is in width only twenty-eight feet inſide, but the nave is ſeventy: the walls, as they now ſtand, are fifty-four feet high, and in thickneſs five. Southward from the choir extend the ſtill beautiful, though broken, pillars and arcades of ſome chapels, now laid open to the day; the chapter-houſe, the cloiſters, and beyond all, and detached from all, is the ſchool-houſe, a large building, the only part of the monaſtery that ſtill boaſts a roof.

As, ſoothed by the venerable ſhades, and the view of a more venerable ruin, we reſted oppoſite to the eaſtern window of the choir, where once the high altar ſtood, and, with five other altars, aſſiſted the religious pomp of the ſcene; the images and the manners of times that were paſt roſe to reflection. The midnight proceſſion of monks, clothed in white, and bearing lighted tapers, appeared to the 'mind's eye,' iſſuing to the choir through the very door-caſe, by which ſuch proceſſions were wont to paſs from the cloiſters to perform the matin ſervice, when, at the moment of their entering the church, the deep chanting of voices was heard, and the organ ſwelled a ſolemn peal. To fancy, the ſtrain, ſtill echoed feebly along the arcades, and died in the breeze among the woods the ruſtling leaves mingling with the cloſe. It was eaſy to image the abbot and the officiating prieſts ſeated beneath the richly-fretted canopy of the four ſtalls, that ſtill remain entire in the ſouthern wall, and high over which is now perched a ſolitary yew-tree, a black funeral memento to the living of thoſe who once ſat below.

Of a quadrangular court on the weſt ſide of the church, 334 feet long, and 102 feet wide, little veſtige now appears, except the foundation of a range of cloiſters, that formed its weſtern boundary, and under the ſhade of

which the monks, on days of high ſolemnity, paſſed in their cuſtomary proceſſion round the court. What was the belfry is now a huge maſs of detached ruin, pictureſque from the loftineſs of its ſhattered arches, and the high inequalities of the ground within them, where the tower, that once crowned this building, having fallen, lies in vaſt fragments, now covered with earth and graſs, and no longer diſtinguiſhable but by the hillock they form.

The ſchool-houſe, a heavy ſtructure attached to the boundary wall on the ſouth, is nearly entire, and the walls, particularly of the portal, are of enormous thickneſs, but, here and there, a chaſm diſcloſes the ſtair-caſes, that wind within them to chambers above. The ſchool-room below, ſhows only a ſtone bench, that extends round the walls, and a low ſtone pillar in the eaſtern corner, on which the teacher's pulpit was formerly fixed. The lofty vaulted roof is ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable by the duſky light admitted through one or two narrow windows placed high from the ground, perhaps for the purpoſe of confining the ſcholar's attention to his book.

Theſe are the principal features that remain of this once magnificent abbey. It was dedicated to St. Mary, and received a colony of monks from the monaſtery of Savigny, in Normandy, who were called Grey Monks, from their dreſs of that colour, till they became Ciſtercians, and, with the ſevere rules of St. Bernard, adopted a white habit, which they retained till the diſſolution of monaſtic orders in England.

The deep foreſts, that once ſurrounded the abbey, and overſpread all Furneſs, contributed with its inſulated ſituation, on a neck of land running out into the ſea, to ſecure it from the depredations of the Scots, who were continually committing hoſtilities on the borders. On a ſummit over the abbey are the remains of a beacon, or watch-tower, raiſed by the ſociety for their further ſecurity. It commands extenſive views over Low Furneſs, and the bay of the ſea immediately beneath; looking forward to the town and caſtle of Lancaſter, appearing faintly on the oppoſite coaſt; on the ſouth, to the iſles of Walney, Foulney, and their numerous iſlets, on one of which ſtands Peel-caſtle; and, on the north, to the mountains of High Furneſs and Coniſton, riſing in grand amphitheatre round this inlet of the Iriſh channel.

The ſum total of all rents belonging to the abbey immediately before the diſſolution was 946l 2s 10d, collected from Lancaſhire, Cumberland, and even from the Iſle of Man.

Pyle, the laſt abbot, ſurrendered, with twenty-nine monks, to Henry VIII, April 9, 1537, and in return was made rector of Dalton, a ſituation then valued at 33l 6s 8d a year.

MEMOIRS *of the* PROGRESS *of the* SCIENCES *and the* USEFUL ARTS.

PRACTICAL Aſtronomy has lately derived important advantage from the labours of Mr. Burg, of the imperial obſervatory at Vienna. Two or three years ſince, he and Mr. Bouvert, a French aſtronomer, communicated to the national inſtitute of France, two memoirs on ſome of the elements of the lunar tables, the merits of which were rewarded with prizes. Thoſe memoirs ſuggeſted the neceſſity of a new calculation of lunar tables. A prize equal in value to 240l ſterling, was offered by the inſtitute for the conſtruction of ſuch tables. Not more than twenty months after the propoſal of the prize, a ſet of tables were tranſmitted by Mr. Burg, in competition for the reward. A committee of the moſt eminent aſtronomers in that body, rigorouſly inveſtigated the accuracy and general merits of the tables. They have pronounced them to be completely worthy of the prize. The firſt conſul, informed of their deciſion, by a deputation from the inſtitute, has munificently doubled the promiſed ſum: and Mr. Burg has received for his tables 480l, inſtead of the 240l which

he had been taught to expect. The tables are communicated to our aſtronomer-royal, Dr. Maſkelyne, that he may avail himſelf of them in his calculations.

Mr. Luke Howard, ſome years ſince, aſcertained that there is a periodical variation in the indications of the barometer, which appears to be occaſioned by the influence of the ſun and moon upon the atmoſphere. His obſervations have been recently confirmed by Mr. Cotte at Paris. It may henceforth be conſidered as a general truth, that at the new and the full moon, the mercury in the barometer is liable to undergo a greater number of depreſſions than of elevations. but that at the firſt quarter, and at the ſecond quarter of the moon's age, the mercury in the barometer, is, on the contrary, oftener elevated than depreſſed.

At London, ſeveral aſcents in a car, attached to a balloon, have been lately made by Mr. Garnerin and others, from which it appears that the practice of the aeronaut, however otherwiſe inapplicable to the uſes of life, may contribute much to improve our knowledge of the natural hiſtory of the atmoſphere.

In chymiſtry, the courſe of reſearch and diſcovery is ſtill rapidly advancing. Mr. David Muſhet has aſcertained by a ſeries of intereſting experiments, that the fuſibility of iron or ſteel is always in the direct ratio of the quantity of pure carbon united with it; that ſteel of the beſt quality is produced by the combination of the greateſt quantity poſſible of the pureſt iron with carbon of that perfect purity in which the matter exiſts in the diamond; and that only an impure and imperfect ſteel is produced by uniting with iron, carbon, that is in any degree oxidated.

Napoleone Bonaparte, firſt conſul of France, has eſtabliſhed a fund from which a prize of the value of 120l ſterling, is to be annually paid to the author of the beſt experiment, tending to illuſtrate the nature and relations of the Galvanic fluid. With magnificence ſtill more ſplendid and generous, he offers the ſum of 2400l ſterling, to any perſon who ſhall diſtinguiſh himſelf, by at once advancing our knowledge of the nature of electricity, which comprehends alſo Galvaniſm, to a degree as much exceeding its preſent ſtate, as the diſcoveries of Franklin raiſed this ſcience above the obſcurity in which that philoſopher found it, and as thoſe of Volta have raiſed it above the condition of improvement, to which it had been brought by the followers of Franklin.

A letter has been received at Paris, from one of the botaniſts, who ſailed in the expedition of diſcovery under captain Baudin. It is dated from the iſland of Timor. From its contents we learn in general, that the naturaliſts who went on that expedition have had difficulties and dangers to encounter, and are likely to return with many new and valuable ſpecimens of intereſting objects in the different kingdoms of nature, which were not before known to natural hiſtory.

The court of Madrid is about to ſend two ſcientific travellers to explore the interior regions of Africa.

An Arabian work on the Egyptian hieroglyphics, which was brought from Egypt to England, by Mr. Von-Hammer, is about to be publiſhed in London, with a tranſlation.

Several ſkeletons of the Mammouth, or American elephant, nearly complete, have been diſcovered by a Mr. Peale. It differs only in a few particulars from the elephant of Aſia. Mr. Peale has already exhibited one of theſe ſkeletons as a curioſity in Philadelphia. He intends to ſend one to be ſhown for money in Europe.

It ſeems to have been nearly, or even entirely, aſcertained: that if a bee-hive, which the bees have filled with honey and wax, be removed from its ſeat to any other ſituation, at no great diſtance; and if on the vacant ſeat be placed an empty hive, which has been carefully rubbed on the inſide with honey and fragrant herbs; the bees will deſert their old and full hive,

and take up their reſidence in the new one which fills the ſeat of the old; the honey and wax of the old may be taken away for the uſe of man, without injury to the inſects which gathered it; and if the time when this is done be not too late in the harveſt, the bees which have been thus robbed will be able to lay in yet a ſecond ſtore, ſufficient for their nouriſhment in the winter. This fact, but newly aſcertained, is of great importance in the domeſtic management of theſe laborious and valuable inſects.

Mr. R. Brown, of Markle, near Haddington, in Scotland, has aſcertained by experiment, that our common autumnal and winter wheat, though ſown in ſpring, at any time between the beginning of February and the middle of March, will yield as rich a growth of grain as if the ſowing had been in the end of harveſt, or the beginning of winter, and that the ripening of the growth from ſeed-wheat ſown in March, is no more than ten days later than that of the produce from wheat ſown in November.

The Chineſe have a method of cutting glaſs, with pointed irons made red hot. As glaſs is fuſible by a red heat, it is eaſy to ſee that this method is founded on a principle by which it muſt neceſſarily be ſucceſsful. It has but very recently become known in Europe; but may ſoon, very probably, be preferred to the method which prevails among our artiſans, of cutting glaſs with the diamond.

A gentleman in France has lately diſcovered that the flooring of granaries with deals of the timber of the poplar-tree, effectually prevents the deſtruction of the grain, which may be depoſited in them, by weevils, and other inſects.

The following direction for the preparation of an indelible ink, has, in conſequence of a due number of experiments, been lately made public by Mr. W. Cloſe. 'Take, for black ink, of oil of lavender, two hundred drops, of copal in powder twenty five grains, of lamp-black from two and a half to three grains: diſſolve the copal in the oil of lavender by a gentle heat, in a ſmall glaſs phial: mix the lamp-black with the ſolution, on a marble ſlab, or on any other ſurface equally ſmooth; preſerve the ink thus made in a bottle, from which the air is excluded; if the ſolution become thick while it is kept for uſe, let it be diluted with oil of lavender, oil of turpentine, or alcohol'—'Take, for red ink, one hundred and twenty grains of oil of lavender, ſeventeen grains of copal in powder, ſixty grains of red ſulphuret of mercury.'—In the uſe of either of theſe compoſitions, the oil of lavender evaporates from the writing by the ſun's heat, or that of a fire very gently applied; and the colouring matter, whether lamp-black or ſulphuret of mercury, remains in the copal a ſubſtance inſoluble in water, ſpirits, acids, or ſolutions of alkali.

There are now in the poſſeſſion of the royal college of ſurgeons, a ſet of waxen figures, imitating the parts of the human body, and compoſing all together one complete human form. They are remarkable as repreſenting the diſſected parts of the body with a minuteneſs and exactitude adequate to the moſt accurate anatomical demonſtration. With ſuch figures, a lecturer in anatomy might explain the nature of the parts to his pupils, as faithfully and particularly as by the diſſection of a real body. The figures were procured from Florence. The Abbate Fontana has been for ſome time accuſtomed to make ſuch preparations for a ſtipulated price, for the cabinets of diſtinguiſhed perſons in different parts of Europe. Nor is he the firſt author of this art. An eminent lady at Bologna, who had attained to aſtoniſhing ſkill in anatomy, firſt prepared ſuch waxen repreſentations of the internal parts of the human frame. She was the daughter of a profeſſor, and had it not been for the diſadvantage of her ſex, would have been made a profeſſor herſelf. There was in the muſeum of the late Mr. Rackſtrow, a ſet of figures affording ſimilar illuſtration of the operations in the obſtetrical art.

ON PAINTING.

By Mr. EDWARD DAYES, Painter.

ESSAY III.—*ON THE ELEMENTS OF BEAUTY.*

What art thou, Beauty? whence thy pow'r,
That thus perſuaſive, charms the heart,
When thy fair hand adorns the roſeate bow'r,
Or blooming virgin, pride of all thy art! LANGHORN.

UPON mature conſideration it will appear as if our inquiry ſhould be after the beautiful itſelf; or in other words, that which makes every thing beautiful by its preſence. For, ſhould any one aſſert that beauty is purely external, he muſt never have conſidered the ſubject. For, were it aſked from whence a man is wiſe, ſhould we not anſwer, From poſſeſſing wiſdom? And ſhould we not ſay the ſame of good things, that they were ſo from having good in them, and that an object is beautiful from poſſeſſing beauty? or ſhall we pronounce thoſe things mere non-entities, and the words of no import?

Perhaps any two perſons in oppoſite hemiſpheres, who ſhould begin or invent a ſcience (geometry for inſtance) would proceed in their diſcoveries nearly in the ſame way. Now, to invent is to find; and to find ſomething preſuppoſes its exiſtence ſomewhere, internally or externally, ſcattered or in a maſs. Or ſhall we ſay there is not any ſuch thing as ſcience? that it is only a knowledge of externals? But how could they aſſert the power of that Being who operated prior to all externals? If our knowledge is of externals, we muſt certainly labour under a deception; for it is not externals but their images only that we are acquainted with, the objects themſelves not becoming the ſubject of ſpeculation. So we ſhall not poſſeſs truth itſelf, but only certain images of truth, and of courſe poſſeſs what is falſe; while truth will abide in the externals. Hence ſhould we not rather conclude that ſcience cannot be taught by man, or be obtained through the means of externals only, but lies, as it were, latent in every mind, till excited and brought to light by diligent and deep inquiry? For, were the inquiries of art after viſible objects, the point would ſoon be ſettled by diligently copying the images painted to ſenſe: on the contrary, the artiſt, recurring to the reaſoning energy, aims at a perfection beyond matter. But ſome, having no knowledge of internal beauty, are conſtrained to ſeek it in the objects of ſenſe, and of courſe preſent us with all the imperfections of an individual model. Hence, was beauty to remain external to the ſoul, it could never affect; but, being well and perfectly conceived, we are moved by it with the moſt exquiſite delight.

Painting depends on two powers, the mind and the hand; or in other words, reflection and practice. We ſhould therefore by an early application to drawing, particularly regular forms, qualify ourſelves to embody our ideas with facility and eaſe when the mind has attained to maturity.

As the Great Firſt, or that which is in the moſt exalted degree, contains all things in the immenſity of his being; ſo all things being referred to and ſubſiſting by him, he is conſidered as the good of the univerſe. Hence all deſire the poſſeſſion of good, as thinking thereby they ſhall become ſufficient to themſelves *. But all do not think the poſſeſſion of

* The ſupreme Author of our being has ſo formed the ſoul of man, that nothing but himſelf can be its laſt, adequate, and proper happineſs. ADDISON.

beauty will be the completion of their wiſhes; not that the good can be deſtitute of beauty, as in the Firſt muſt neceſſarily abide all things: ſo it will be ſuperior to beauty, as not requiring the aſſiſtance of the ſenſes.

The beauty of intellect is ſuperior to that of matter, and appears to have had a previous exiſtence; juſt as the concluſion will remain indubitably certain, whether the ſyllogiſtic energy be exerted or not; or as true ſcience exiſted before theory, and it before practice *. It is from this the artiſt can never faſhion beautiful forms equal to the perfection of reaſon from which he acts; for reaſon is a ſuperior beauty, ſince in it is contained the beauty of art.

Again, as beauty argues perfection, it were in vain to ſeek it in ſenſibles, the objects of ſenſe being imperfect. For, though we ſhould grant it is rendered in a certain degree viſible in matter, yet the higher degree of perfection is implied in the Venus Urania.

To carry on our inquiry, works of art cannot derive their beauty from the materials of which they are compoſed, but from the reaſoning energy; not becauſe the artiſt poſſeſſes hands and eyes, but that he is endowed with art. For it is the duty of the artiſt to faſhion beautiful forms; as of a man, not any particular one is to be taken as a model, but he is bound to enter into the reaſons of art, and produce a perfect aſſemblage of beauty.

Something further than manual labour is neceſſary, otherwiſe we may miſtake ſeeing and hearing for underſtanding.

Some ignorantly miſtake magnitude for greatneſs; but if bulk is beautiful as bulk, it muſt follow that active reaſon, which is not bulk, is not beautiful. But the contrary is the fact, and fine works of art derive their excellence from reaſon infuſed and exiſting in matter.

It is from miſtaking the true end of art that many fall into painting large pictures, ſuppoſing what is big muſt alſo be great in art; while others, from an exceſs of vanity, give their figures a gigantic proportion—highly improper in what may be termed chamber pictures. Wrong or bad taſtes delight in things monſtrous. The exceſs of Nero was ſhown in his ordering a picture of himſelf to be painted on cloth 120 feet high, which was ſet up in the gardens of Marius; in his golden palaces; and in his gilding ſome fine ſtatues †.

The love and admiration of beauty is implanted in our natures by the great Firſt Cauſe, and we are carried to it by an impulſe irreſiſtible; its influence is powerful; it tranſports the ſenſes beyond what is uſual, and, if its continuance be long, is accompanied with melancholy, and a ſilent ſadneſs.

———————She never told her love,
But let concealment, like a worm i' the bud,
Feed on her damaſk cheek: ſhe pin'd in thought,
And with a green and yellow melancholy,
She ſat like patience on a monument
Smiling at Grief. SHAKSPEARE.

Though the above is one of the effects cauſed by beauty, yet we wiſh to be underſtood as diſtinguiſhing between the ſatisfaction we feel upon contemplating any thing beautiful, of whatever kind it may be, and that paſſion of the mind ariſing from deſire or luſt.

* True ſcience belongs only to the great Artificer of the univerſe: all our exertions only place us in a middle ſtation, between ignorance and perfect wiſdom. It is ſcarcely neceſſary to obſerve, creation could not have been produced through the means of externals, as ſenſible objects had not then a being. It may be further neceſſary to remark, that the wiſe of all nations have thought that the ſciences have vaniſhed and appeared again under the various revolutions of the univerſe.

† I think it was Caligula that deteſted the works of Virgil, and lamented he did not live in his time, that he might have had the *pleaſure* of putting him to death.

Many definitions of beauty have been attempted. Johnſon calls it 'that aſſemblage of graces or proportion of parts which pleaſes the eye.' Locke, 'a certain compoſition of colour and figure, cauſing delight to the beholder.' A third, 'perfection.' The two former appear to come much nearer truth than the latter; for, if beauty was perfection, the toad muſt be beautiful, it being equally perfect with the reſt of creation.

Fancy or opinion will go but a little way toward illuſtrating a ſubject that ſeems to influence on ſome univerſal principle, and to affect all perſons, and at all times.

It appears pretty generally admitted that beauty (or the beautiful) is that which moves us with pleaſure through the ſight or hearing, as by the eye we are delighted with pictures, ſtatues or buildings; and in muſic, with the harmony of well meaſured ſounds; alſo in poetry, with ſentiment and meaſure: but as whatever is produced by nature or art is the effect of a certain wiſdom, hence it follows that wiſdom becomes one of its qualities, and the faſcinating power of beauty will appear to ariſe from an union the moſt delightful—wiſdom and pleaſure *; which will affect all perſons, and at all times, and will equally apply to painting, ſtatuary, poetry, ethics, and laws.

We muſt not conſider apparent beauty as a ſimple idea, or as exiſting in proportion, ſhape, ſoftneſs, &c. only; one conſtituent is colour, and in a more abſtract way, light and ſhade; for on the latter being well diſpoſed depends much of the general good effect of the picture, as from a bad diſpoſition of the light and dark a fine form may be defaced and broken.

Many imagine the arts operate by imitating nature merely: the fact is, they do not ſimply copy ſuch objects as are ſeen by the eyes, but, recurring to thoſe reaſons from which the energy of nature ſubſiſts, add ſomething where any thing is wanting to the perfection of the whole. Thoſe beautiful forms of the Greeks which happily exiſt among us are not imitations of any ſpectacle proper to the ſenſes, but are the reſult of profound contemplation. Phidias, when he faſhioned his Jupiter, conceived the idea of a god ſuch as he would appear if exhibited to our eyes, and by a divine enthuſiaſm, produced a work ſaid to be more than mortal.

It is this lovely ideal that ſtamps ſuch a value on the beſt works of art; it is this ideal perfection which may be truly called the goddeſs of painting, the light of ſcience, the fire from heaven with which Prometheus animated his ſtatues: it is the loves, the graces, of genuine and legitimate art.

On the ſenſible Qualities of Beauty.

Many reaſons have been aſſigned why beauty charms and captivates the ſenſes. The platoniſts believed our delight aroſe from its producing a recollection of thoſe beautiful viſions we had enjoyed in a previous and more perfect ſtate of exiſtence. Burke calls it 'ſome quality in bodies acting mechanically upon the human mind by the intervention of the ſenſes.'

That there is a beauty ſuperior to form and colour is unqueſtionable, as light, which, though in itſelf formleſs, is a ſource of form, and is perhaps the only thing viſible: light is life, its oppoſite is darkneſs and death.

Ignorance of beauty and taſte argues a defective animation, while a wrong or bad one proceeds from a weakneſs of judgment: hence ſome miſtake deformity for beauty, and continue in that error through life. The young artiſt ſhould therefore learn as early as poſſible to avoid groſs and vulgar habits if he propoſes to elevate the

* Hence the ſtatue of Hercules as well as the Venus de Medicis will be beautiful in art from the above union; but, was the former animated, the pleaſure would vaniſh from a dread of his power.

character of his works: if his apoſtles appear as if ſtrayed from Rag-fair, and his heroes and princes poſſeſs the vulgar air of prize-fighters, they can never be expected to intereſt beyond people of ſimilar habits, and will never attract the attention of thoſe whoſe ſentiments are delicately juſt: coarſe intelligence may ſurpriſe the unthinking, but will not ſatisfy the diſcerning.

Mild, affable, and gentle, are qualities of beauty, and theſe we admire when we ſee them united (in temperance) with the three principal ſigns of life—heat, motion, and voice; but exceſs of either deſtroys.

There are three diſtinct characters of beauty, two of which may be conſidered as earthly; as the common, which depends on faſhion, and ſatisfies common ſenſe; the uncommon, as ſelected by judgment; and the perfect, which, as before obſerved, ſubſiſts in imagination.

If we diligently attend to the progreſs of the arts in Greece, or after their revival in Italy, we ſhall obſerve three diſtinct periods; firſt, when they went no further than merely copying an object: ſecondly, when they ſelected their object: and laſtly, which makes the higheſt point of excellence, when they produced works of pure imagination.

The beauty of the naked requires ſeveral qualities to its perfection; as, that the form be in proportion, and well ſhaped; that it poſſeſſes a free and eaſy motion, and be of a ſound and freſh colour. The two latter will be treated of in their proper places, while here we ſhall content ourſelves with offering the proportions found in De Piles, as ſome guide in the ſearch of truth: beſides, as the painter deals in foreſhortening, they are not of that importance as to the ſtatuary.

'The antients have commonly allowed eight heads to their figures, though ſome of them have but ſeven; but we ordinarily divide the figure into ten faces *, that is to ſay, from the crown of the head to the ſole of the foot, in the following manner.

From the crown of the head to the forehead is the third part of a face.

The face begins at the root of the loweſt hairs which are upon the forehead, and ends at the bottom of the chin.

The face is divided into three proportionable parts; the firſt contains the forehead, the ſecond the noſe, and the third the mouth and chin; from the chin to the pit between the collar bones are two lengths of a noſe.

From the pit between the collar bones to the bottom of the breaſts, one face.

From the bottom of the breaſts to the navel, one face †.

From the navel to the genitals, one face ‡.

From the genitals to the upper part of the knee, two faces.

The knee contains half a face.

From the lower part of the knee to the ancle, two faces.

From the ancle to the ſole of the foot, half a face.

A man when his arms are ſtretched out is, from the longeſt finger of the right hand to the longeſt finger of his left, as broad as he is long.

From one ſide of the breaſts to the other, two faces.

The bone of the arm called *humerus* is the length of two faces, from the ſhoulder to the elbow.

From the end of the elbow to the root of the little finger, the bone called *cubitus*, with part of the hand, contains two faces

* This muſt depend on the age and quality of the perſons. The Apollo and Venus de Medicis have more than ten faces: the Hercules has ſeven heads, as ſuiting great bodily ſtrength.

† The Apollo has a noſe more.

‡ The Apollo has half a noſe more; and the upper half of the Venus de Medicis is to the lower part of the belly and not to the privy parts.—See Audran's Ancient Statues.

From the box of the ſhoulder-blade to the pit between the collar-bones, one face.

If you would be ſatisfied in the meaſures of the breadth from the extremity of one finger to the other, ſo that this breadth ſhould be equal to the length of the body, you muſt obſerve that the boxes of the elbows with the humerus, and of the humerus with the ſhoulder-blade, bear the proportion of half a face, when the arms are ſtretched out.

The ſole of the foot is the ſixth part of the figure.

The hand is the length of the face.

The thumb contains a noſe.

The inſide of the arm, from the place where the muſcle diſappears, which makes the breaſt, (called the pectoral muſcle) to the middle of the arm, four noſes.

From the middle of the arm to the beginning of the head, five noſes.

The longeſt toe is a noſe long.

The two outmoſt parts of the teats, and the pit between the collar bones of a woman, make an equilateral triangle.

For the breadth of the limbs no preciſe meaſures can be given, becauſe the meaſures themſelves are changeable according to the quality of the perſons and according to the movement of the muſcles. De Piles'.

The meaſures of the ancient ſtatues by Audran will be found highly uſeful, as they are accompanied with outlines of thoſe the moſt diſtinguiſhed for correctneſs.

The proportions of children differ from the adult as follow: The child of two years old has about five heads in its whole length, three of which go to the upper part, and two to the lower: one of four or five years old, has near ſix heads; and at fifteen or ſixteen, ſeven heads are the proportion.

In infants, the centre or middle part between the two extremities of the head and feet, is the navel; in the adult it is the *os pubis*.

It is the character of the man to be broadeſt on the ſhoulders; the woman on the hips. This will be found to hold good in the male and female in moſt of the animal race.

It has been premiſed that the proportion of the figure muſt vary according to the character, as what would ſuit a Hercules would by no means agree with Apollo.

By proportion, we wiſh to be underſtood a correſpondence and agreement of the meaſures of the parts between themſelves and with the whole.

Much ingenious argument has been uſed by the author of the 'Sublime and Beautiful' to prove that proportion is not the cauſe, or rather one of the cauſes, of beauty. In his inquiry that author appears to have expected the proportion of one animal being laid down, admitting it beautiful, that it ought to ſerve as a general ſtandard for the whole of creation. 'Examine the head of a beautiful horſe; find what proportion it bears to his body and to his limbs, and what relation they have to each other; and when you have ſettled theſe proportions as a ſtandard of beauty, then take a dog or cat, or any other animal, and examine how far the ſame proportions between its head and its neck, between thoſe and the body, and ſo on, are found to hold.' That they differ in every animal is beyond all queſtion, but that there is a general ſtandard of proportion for each is equally unqueſtionable: for, were there not ſome ſuch ſtandards, nature would in time produce ſuch a jumble of ſhapes, that it would be impoſſible to diſtinguiſh an ox from a greyhound; to the confuſion of all order and ſymmetry. Beſides, from the proportions laid down as rules of art, though an indifferent artiſt cannot inſure beauty, yet he will be almoſt certain of general character.

The author before mentioned goes on to obſerve, with a view to eſtabliſh his point: 'It ſeems amazing to me that artiſts, if they are well con-

vinced, as they pretend to be, that proportion is a principal cauſe of beauty, have not by them at all times accurate meaſurements of all the beautiful animals, to help them to proper proportions when they would contrive any thing elegant, eſpecially as they frequently aſſert that it is from an obſervation of the beautiful in nature that they direct their practice.' Thoſe meaſures the artiſt has by him as far as he can obtain them, the value of which is known to him from their great utility. Even the vulgar appear ſenſible of proportion; hence the nick name of *long ſhanks*, from thoſe parts wanting the cuſtomary proportion. The 'ſmoothneſs' of the ſkin of a dropſical perſon will never be pleaſing, any more than that of a perſon over fat from the want of proportion, the parts appearing too thick for the height.

That ſmoothneſs in painting is not one of the cauſes of beauty is apparent from the pictures of Vanderwerf, the exceſs of which gives the fleſh the appearance of ivory: beſides, the ſmoothneſs muſt depend on the ſize of the picture in a great degree. It is true, we ſometimes ſee a large picture highly finiſhed, and a ſmall one crude and ſlight; but ſuch a practice is contrary to common ſenſe: a large one require a boldneſs of handling, *not a ſlightneſs or indication of form only*; and ſmall ones greater delicacy. It muſt alſo be evident that the ſtyle of execution muſt be governed by the nature of the ſubject: if it be dignified, the handling ſhould be bold, as what would add a grace to a low ſubject would detract from a great one, as much as a common and vulgar idea would debaſe what is lofty.

It is not a ſingle ſenſible quality that can conſtitute an object beautiful, but a combination of them, as we ſhall find by a recapitulation of the foregoing remarks.

We wiſh to be underſtood as confining ourſelves to the beauty of the human figure, the qualities eſſential to which will be found to conſiſt in a juſt proportion; that the parts be well ſhaped; a free, affable, mild, and eaſy motion; a ſound and freſh colour, with the tints melting and tender; that the direction of its lines be gently varied, and by no means approaching to angular; and, laſtly, that it is accompanied in a picture with a certain degree of ſoftneſs and finiſhing.

The Greeks ſeem to have conſidered the exiſtence of beauty and paſſion as incompatible: hence ſo little expreſſion is found in the Niobes: they appear always to have ſacrificed the latter to the former.

PULVERIZED BONES USED AS A MANURE.

AS long ſince as in the year 1775, the idea of employing bones, relics from the table and the kitchen, as an article of manure, occurred to ſome perſons in the neighbourhood of Thiers. A mill was accordingly erected to break the bones, and grind them to a powder. The undertaking proved ſucceſsful. In the year 1788, powder of unburnt bones was in common uſe there as a manure; and was ſold at a price varying from four ſhillings and twopence ſterling to ſix ſhillings and threepence per cwt. On low moiſt grounds, on marſhy meadows, and on black light ſoils, its effects were found to be moſt powerfully fertilizing. It was ſcattered on the ſoil, either before or after the ſeed was ſown. The crops raiſed with this manure were, on the firſt year, wheat, on the ſecond, oats. Or if rye was deſired, rather than oats for the ſecond crop, it became, in this caſe, neceſſary to add a ſecond dreſſing of powder of bones. The filings of the horns and bones uſed by the cutlers to make hafts to their knives, were put to the ſame uſe, with equal advantage. The ſame manure has been, in other diſtricts of France, employed with ſucceſs in the culture of the vine.

INSTANCES OF THE PATERNAL GOVERNMENT IN FRANCE.

THE revolution has altered every thing in France. But immediately before it broke out, there exiſted among the mountains of Auvergne, not far from Thiers, ſome curiouſly intereſting examples of the paternal form of political government. Several ſolitary hamlets were poſſeſſed by diſtinct families of the names of Taranté, Baritel, Terme, Guittard, Bourgade, Beaujeu, &c. The following account of the family of Guittard, illuſtrates alſo the condition of the other families. Their hamlet is ſituate about half a league northweſt from the town of Thiers. It has the name of Pinon. In July 1788, the family was ſubdivided into four different houſeholds, conſiſting in all of nineteen perſons, men, women, and children. As theſe were unequal to the performance of all the work neceſſary among them, they retained alſo thirteen hired ſervants. This family was ſaid to have lived in the hamlet, which they thus occupied ever ſince the twelfth century. The adminiſtration of the government of their hamlet was paternal, yet elective. The members of the community were wont to chooſe from among themſelves a chief or head, by a majority of voices. The perſon thus choſen, aſſumes upon this the title of the maſter, acquires the authority of father of the family, and is obliged to watch over all its concerns. All the members of the family work together, for their common benefit. They lodge and eat together; are clothed and entertained at the common expence, out of the general income; and live as ſo many brothers and ſiſters in their father's houſe. The maſter, or head of the family, receives the money, buys and ſells, gives orders for the reparation of their houſes, diſpenſes to every individual his proper taſk, regulates every thing in regard to the harveſts, the vintage, and the cattle. He is, however, held reſponſible to thoſe from whoſe choice he derives his authority. Nor are there wanting inſtances of the depoſition of a maſter, whom the common voice judged to have abuſed the truſt committed to him.

A woman has, in like manner, the principal direction of matters within doors. She has the title of the miſtreſs; and the kitchen, the poultry-yard, the linens, the clothing of the community, &c. are under her charge. She has authority over the women; is elected by a majority of voices; and is liable to be depoſed, if ſhe ſhould abuſe her power.

It is a rule in the community, that the miſtreſs muſt never be either wife or ſiſter to the maſter; becauſe in ſuch a caſe theſe two might be apt, in a more than ordinary degree, to abuſe the confidence of the reſt, to their own private advantage.

It is an unalterable law of the community, on which indeed its very exiſtence fundamentally depends, never to make any diviſion of the common property. Neither in caſe of marriage, nor in caſe of death, is this rule ever infringed. If a young woman of the family of Guittard marry away from Pinon, ſhe receives a marriage portion of 600 livres, or twenty-five pounds ſterling; but upon the wealth of her family retains no further claim. A few of the young men, who have likewiſe gone abroad into the world, have been treated by their family exactly in the ſame manner.

But the men have in general been content to ſettle at home as huſbandmen. Of late, indeed, there was an inſtance of one who entered into holy orders, and became canon of Thiers. He, however, retained ſtill a tender attachment to the place of his birth. To preſerve his connexion with it, he had a ſmall houſe there built for himſelf, in which he was accuſtomed to ſpend two or three agreeable days, every week, with his worthy relations. In 1783 he died, and his houſe was

left without a poſſeſſor. The then maſter of the community was his nephew, and in both theſe characters ſeemed to have the beſt right to occupy the vacant houſe. But that houſe, though humble and ſimple, was yet better than the reſt. If the maſter had been better lodged than his brethren and equals; they might, perhaps, have looked upon him with an eye of jealouſy. He, therefore, declined to have any thing in particular to do with the houſe; and it was by common conſent appropriated for the reception of any reſpectable ſtrangers coming among them.

Sometimes, indeed, the Guittards take wives out of other communities, juſt as well as give their daughters in marriage to young men belonging to other communities. But they more commonly intermarry among themſelves. Being all mutually relations, and becoming by ſuch marriages ſtill more nearly related, they cannot intermarry without diſpenſations. But the neceſſary diſpenſations have been ever granted by the biſhops of Clermont with the greateſt readineſs; a fact which abundantly teſtifies that this reſpectable family has been always held in the higheſt eſtimation.

The whole animal farm-ſtock of the Guittards of Pinon conſiſted at the time when this account was written of only three yokes of oxen, thirty cows, and eighty ſheep. The houſes are in a good condition, ſuch as might be expected of thoſe of rich farmers. But they have nothing above the condition of mere farmers working with their own hands. Their chairs are ſtraw-bottomed, their beds, cheſts, preſſes, and the wainſcotting of their rooms are of fir-deal. The preſent maſter is the only one among them that poſſeſſes a preſs of oak and walnut tree. He had alſo a ſilver watch, a bequeſt from his uncle the canon. Their linen, ſtockings, clothes, and all thoſe parts of their houſehold furniture, which are of cloth or ſtuff, are made by their women. The men, with the aſſiſtance of their ſervants, build the houſes, repair failures in the roofs, make their implements of huſbandry, prepare hogs-heads to hold their wines, without calling in the help of any artiſan. They go to the market for nothing but ſalt and iron. Every one of them is a ſort of Robinſon Cruſoe, qualified to exerciſe all the uſeful arts, ſo far, at leaſt, as his own neceſſities demand.

Unleſs when the nature of the work obliges them to ſeparate, they labour all together. They have a great kitchen, kept always very neat and clean, in which they meet to take their meals together. The table is there for the men, who are ſerved while they eat by the women. When the men riſe from the table, the women then ſit down to their repaſt. In the kitchen is a receſs forming a ſort of chapel; and containing, with an image of Chriſt, another of the bleſſed Virgin. In that receſs, they join every evening in prayer: their morning prayers they offer up ſeparately and in private.

Beſide the hamlet, the Guittards are proprietors, likewiſe, of a wood, a garden, a few plats of vineyard-ground, and a number of cheſtnut-trees. But the ſoil of their land is poor, bearing no better grain than rye: and the thirty-two mouths which they have daily to ſupply, leave nothing for ſale out of their annual produce of grain. Their charity is, however, unbounded. No poor perſon knocks at their doors without finding admittance; never one that enters comes away, without having eaten a hearty meal of ſoup and bread. Whoever aſks a night's lodging has it. There is even a chamber kept on purpoſe for beggars to ſleep in. In winter, they carry their humanity ſo far as to lodge the wandering poor in the bakehouſe, where they may be warmed by heat from the oven.

From the inn at which I dined at Thiers, ſays M. Le Grand, ſome one had, without my knowledge, gone before, to let thoſe good people know

that I was coming to viſit them. On my approach I found that the Guittards had changed their dreſs, and were waiting together to receive me. In their reception, there was ſomething of ſimplicity and kindneſs inexpreſſibly affecting. This attention, with the ſight of a patriarchal family uniting all ages, from the tendereſt infancy to extreme old age, could not have failed deeply to intereſt me. But what I ſaw with peculiar delight, was —the little girls in groupes preſſing fondly round their mothers—the mother in cloſe caps and ſnow-white linen, ſome leading by the hand their children, who were already able to run about, others bearing their nurſlings in their arms—the whole a picture in ſhort of concord, health, and innocent felicity, which that little republic of relations preſented. I have not a doubt, but in length of time, an uniform practice of virtue may give a correſponding mould and impreſſion to the features of the face, and produce ſuch characteriſtic looks as ſhall become the diſtinctions of a whole family for many generations. In fact there is in the looks of the Guittards of Pinon ſomething which marks in the men the dignity of ſimple truth and honeſty—in the women, modeſty, candour, and virtue; and of which the expreſſion is too clear and unequivocal to be miſtaken;—a nameleſs ſomething, that conſtitutes their peculiar and mutual family-reſemblance. The maſter engaged my ſpecial notice. In his dreſs there was nothing ſingular; but his whole figure ſeemed exactly that which the poets have imagined to themſelves, whenever they have attempted to give the moſt intereſting deſcriptions of the ſimple manlineſs and native dignity of the human form. He led in his hand his ſon, one of the fineſt boys I had ever ſeen. I entered and ſat down among them. The mothers and their children gathered round me. The men ſtood in an exterior circle. After ſome converſation, the maſter, at my requeſt, conducted me over their farm. In the courſe of our walk, I enquired what means he was accuſtomed to employ, in order to enforce his authority. He told me, that he had hitherto found no neceſſity for having recourſe to ſuch means: all were duly attentive to their common intereſt. Among ſo many men and women, he added, it was impoſſible but that ſome ſlight quarrels ſhould now and then ariſe. 'In ſuch caſes, the difference is communed over, when we meet at table in the evening. I make the parties drink together, and ſhake hands; and all is at an end before we go to prayers. After this no rancour ever remains to prolong the quarrel.' Our walk ended at the houſe, which had belonged to his uncle, the canon. I was there ſurprized by finding a collation prepared for me. It conſiſted of bread, cheeſe, and wine. I could not refuſe to taſte the wine of Pinon; and I drank with ardent good-will to the laſting happineſs and proſperity of the Guittards.—Some time after, a mark of honourable diſtinction was given by government, to be worn as a girdle by the maſter. They loſt it, when all ſuch diſtinctions were aboliſhed by the revolution.

EXTRACTS *from* ASCERBI'S TRAVELS *through* SWEDEN, FINLAND, *and* LAPLAND.

MANNER OF HUNTING THE BEAR IN FINLAND.

IT is but very lately that ſome few individuals have begun to uſe firearms in this chaſe; but there are ſtill many among the peaſantry, particularly in the inland part of the country, who will not expoſe their life to the uncertain ſhot of a muſket, which is ſo liable to be prevented by damp, nor be poſſeſſed of an inſtrument which they think too coſtly, even when of a very ordinary quality. The favourite weapon of the Finlander, in hunting

the bear, is an iron lance fixed at the end of a pole. At about the diſtance of a foot from the point of the lance is fixed a croſs-bar, which prevents the inſtrument from penetrating too far into the body of the bear, or paſſing through both ſides. When the Finlander has diſcovered where the bear has taken up his winter quarters, he goes to the place, and makes a noiſe at the entrance of his den, by which he endeavours to irritate and provoke him to quit his ſtrong hold. The bear heſitates, and ſeems unwilling to come out; but continuing to be moleſted by the hunter, and perhaps by the barking of his dog, he at length gets up, and ruſhes in fury from his cavern. The moment he ſees the peaſant, he rears himſelf upon his two hind legs ready to tear him to pieces. The Finlander inſtantly puts himſelf in an attitude of defence; that is to ſay, he brings back the iron lance cloſe to his breaſt, concealing from the bear the length of the pole, in order that he may not have time to be upon his guard, and conſequently to parry with his paws the mortal blow which the hunter means to aim at his vitals. The Finlander then advances boldly toward the bear, nor does he ſtrike the blow till they are ſo near each other that the animal ſtretches out his paws to tear his antagoniſt limb from limb. At that inſtant the peaſant pierces his heart with the lance, which, but for the croſs-bar, would come out at his ſhoulder; nor could he otherwiſe prevent the bear falling upon him, an accident which might be highly dangerous. By means of the croſs-bar the animal is kept upright, and ultimately thrown upon his back; but what may ſeem to ſome very extraordinary is, the bear feeling himſelf wounded, inſtead of attempting with his paws to pull out the lance, holds it faſt, and preſſes it more deeply into the wound. When the bear, after rolling upon the ſnow, ceaſes from the laſt ſtruggles of death, the Finlander lays hold of him, and calls for the aſſiſtance of his friends, who drag the carcaſe to his hut; and this triumph terminates in a ſort of feſtival, where the poet aſſiſts, and ſings the exploits of the hunter.

Vapour Baths.

Another particular, that appeared very ſingular among the cuſtoms of the Fins, was their baths, and manner of bathing. Almoſt all the Finniſh peaſants have a ſmall houſe built on purpoſe for a bath; it conſiſts of only one ſmall chamber, in the innermoſt part of which are placed a number of ſtones, which are heated by fire till they become red. On theſe ſtones, thus heated, water is thrown, until the company within be involved in a thick cloud of vapour. In this innermoſt part, the chamber is formed into two ſtories for the accommodation of a greater number of perſons within that ſmall compaſs; and it being the nature of heat and vapour to aſcend, the ſecond ſtory is of courſe the hotteſt. Men and women uſe the bath promiſcuouſly, without any concealment of dreſs, or being in the leaſt influenced by any emotions of attachment. If, however, a ſtranger open the door, and come on the bathers by ſurpriſe, the women are not a little ſtartled at his appearance; for, beſide his perſon, he introduces along with him, by opening the door, a great quantity of light, which diſcovers at once to the view their ſituation, as well as forms. Without ſuch an accident they remain, if not in total darkneſs, yet in great obſcurity, as there is no other window beſide a ſmall hole, nor any light but what enters in from ſome chinks in the roof of the houſe, or the crevices between the pieces of wood of which it is conſtructed. I often amuſed myſelf with ſurpriſing the bathers in this manner, and I once or twice tried to go in and join the aſſembly; but the heat was ſo exceſſive that I could not breathe, and in the ſpace of a minute at moſt, I verily believe, muſt have been ſuffocated. I ſometimes ſtept in for a moment, juſt to leave my thermome-

ter in ſome proper place, and immediately went out again, where I would remain for a quarter of an hour, or ten minutes, and then enter again, and fetch the inſtrument, to aſcertain the degree of heat. My aſtoniſhment was ſo great, that I could ſcarcely believe my ſenſes, when I found that thoſe people remain together, and amuſe themſelves for the ſpace of half an hour, and ſometimes a whole hour, in the ſame chamber, heated to the 70th or 75th degree of Celſius. The thermometer, in contact with thoſe vapours, became ſometimes ſo hot that I could ſcarcely hold it in my hands.

The Finlanders, all the while they are in this hot bath, continue to rub themſelves, and laſh every part of their bodies with ſwitches, formed of the twigs of the birch tree. In ten minutes they become as red as raw fleſh, and have altogether a very frightful appearance. In the winter ſeaſon they frequently go out of the bath, naked as they are, to roll themſelves in the ſnow, when the cold is at 20, and even at 30 degrees below Zero *. They will ſometimes come out, ſtill naked, and converſe together, or with any one near them, in the open air. If travellers happen to paſs by while the peaſants of any hamlet, or little village, are in the bath, and their aſſiſtance is needed, they will leave the bath, and aſſiſt in yoking or unyoking, and fetching provender for the horſes, or in any thing elſe, without any ſort of covering whatever, while the paſſenger ſits ſhivering with cold, though wrapped up in a good ſound wolf's ſkin. There is nothing more wonderful than the extremities which man is capable of enduring through the power of habit.

The Finniſh peaſants paſs thus inſtantaneouſly from an atmoſphere of 70 degrees of heat, to one of 30 degrees of cold, a tranſition of a hundred degrees, which is the ſame thing as going out of boiling into freezing water! and what is more aſtoniſhing, without the leaſt inconvenience, while other people are very ſenſibly affected by a variation of but five degrees, and in danger of being afflicted with rheumatiſm by the moſt trifling wind that blows. Thoſe peaſants aſſure you, that without the hot vapour baths they could not ſuſtain, as they do, during the whole day, their various labours. By the bath, they tell you, their ſtrength is recruited as much as by reſt and ſleep. The heat of the vapour mollifies to ſuch a degree their ſkin, that the men eaſily ſhave themſelves with wretched razors, and without ſoap. Had Shakſpeare known of a people who could thus have pleaſure in ſuch quick tranſition from exceſſive heat to the ſevereſt cold, his knowledge might have been increaſed, but his creative fancy could not have been aſſiſted:—

O! who can hold a fire in his hand,
By thinking of the froſty Caucaſus?
Or wallow naked in December ſnow,
By thinking on fantaſtic ſummer's heat?

* I ſpeaks always of the thermometer of a 100 degrees, by Celſius.

Poetry of Finland.

A CIRCLE is formed of the auditors, in the midſt of which ſtand the improviſator, and his repetitory coadjutor.

Every line which the improviſator ſings or delivers, is repeated in the ſame tune by the coadjutor, who, taking up the laſt word, or the laſt but one, finiſhes the line with him, and then repeats it alone. This gives the improviſator time to prepare the ſucceeding line, which he ſings, ſeconded in like manner by his coadjutor; and thus they both proceed, the coadjutor always taking up the laſt word of the improviſator's line, and then repeating it by himſelf until the poem is ended. During intervals, they recruit their ſpirits with beer or brandy, and ſometimes continue the improviſation to a late hour. Dancing not being very common among the Finniſh peaſantry, their amuſements at

fairs, or at their private meetings, conſiſts in theſe kind of ſongs, or recitations, ſometimes accompanied by the harp, if that inſtrument be at hand, when the harper ſupplies the place of the repetitor.

I ſhall now lay before my readers ſome ſpecimens of theſe poems, in which there will be obſerved much redundancy of expreſſion, the ſenſe being continued through two or more verſes, the phraſe only varied, as in the eaſtern compoſitions. The Finniſh tongue is peculiarly adapted to this kind of phraſeology, as it is highly copious, and abounding with ſynonimous words.

The firſt ſpecimen I ſhall produce is an extract from a poem, or funeral elegy, compoſed by Paulo Remes, a Finniſh peaſant, upon the occaſion of his brother's deceaſe. This poem was printed at Abo, in 1765.

The word went from heaven, from him in whoſe hand are all things.

'Come hither, I will make thee my friend; approach, for thou ſhalt henceforth be my companion. Come down from the high hill; leave the ſeat of ſorrow behind thee; enough haſt thou ſuffered; the tears thou haſt ſhed are ſufficient; thou haſt felt pain and diſeaſe; the hour of thy deliverance is come; thou art ſet free from evil days; peace haſteneth to meet thee; relief from grief to come.

'Thus went he out to his Maker; he entered into glory; he haſtened into extreme bliſs; he departed to enjoy liberty; he quitted a life of ſorrow; he left the habitations of the earth.'

Proverbs are the reſult of experience and wiſdom; and no nations, however barbarous, are found without them in their language. The Finniſh tongue has an abundance, many of them conveying ſtrong ſenſe and acute mark. They are for the moſt part in runic or alliterative verſe; and, like the Hebrew proverbs, are divided into hemiſtics, the latter illuſtrating the foregoing. The following are Finniſh proverbs, literally tranſlated:

'The good man ſpareth from his peck; but the wicked will not give from a buſhel.

'The wiſe man knoweth what he ſhall do; but fools try every thing.

'There is no deliverance through tears; neither are evils remedied by ſorrow.

'He who hath tried, goeth immediately to the work; but he who hath no experience ſtandeth to conſider.

'The wiſe man gathereth wiſdom every where; he profiteth by the diſcourſe of fools.

'A man's own land is his chiefeſt delight; the wood is moſt pleaſant that is his.

'The ſtranger is our brother; he who comes from afar off is our kinſman.

'When the morn breaketh forth, I know the day which followeth; a good man diſcovereth himſelf by his looks.

'The work is ended which is begun; there is time loſt to ſay, what ſhall I do?

'The tool of the induſtrious man is ſharp; but the ploughſhare of the fool wanteth grinding.'

ON THE ANATOMY OF VEGETABLES.

Concluded from Page 112.

Of the Pores.

THE pores are ſmall apertures formed in the membranes; they favour evaporation, abſorption, and the motion of the fluids. There are three kinds of them.

1ſt. *The inſenſible pores.*—Theſe are apertures which cannot be perceived by the eye even when aſſiſted by the moſt powerful microſcopes. Effects, however, do not permit us to doubt of their exiſtence. Every vegetable tiſſue is full of them, as is proved by inſenſible tranſpiration.

What ſhows at the ſame time their extreme fitneſs is the phenomenon exhibited by an apple, or any other pulpy fruit, when placed below the receiver of an air-pump: the highly dilated air eſcapes only by burſting the ſkin.

2d. *The elongated pores.*—Theſe have been obſerved by ſeveral naturaliſts, and particularly Decandolle, who gave them the name of cortical pores. I ſhall endeavour to complete his deſcription, by uniting under the ſame point of view his obſervations and thoſe which I have ſince made myſelf. For a knowledge of the principal facts I am indebted to his reſearches; but, as he conſidered this ſubject rather in a phyſical than an anatomical light, his labour does not ſuperſede the neceſſity of publiſhing mine.

The elongated pores exiſt only in the epidermis of the herbaceous parts expoſed to the air and the light. If the exterior membrane of the vegetable be ſkilfully removed, and if you then examine it with a microſcope, you will ſee the interior ſides of the epidermis ſtill adhering, and which form as it were a hexagonal net-work; but here and there inſtead of a hexagon you will obſerve an ellipſe, and the part of the epidermis circumſcribed by that elliptical area is cleft in a longitudinal direction: the aperture is ſometimes free, and ſometimes obſtructed; the latter caſe, in my opinion, ariſes from the lips of the pore, longer than is neceſſary to ſhut the aperture, being applied one to the other, and intercepting the light. The elongated pores are found commonly in the ſtems, the branches, the leaves, the bracteæ, and even the herbaceous pericarpia. In herbaceous plants the two ſurfaces of the leaves are covered with pores; in the fat plants they are leſs numerous than in the other vegetables. In trees and ſhrubs the inferior ſurface only is in general pierced with theſe pores. The ſtems when they become ligneous are deſtitute of them. Theſe pores ſerve for the ſenſible and inſenſible tranſpiration and for the abſorption of the fluids. They each correſpond to a ſmall cell, which, according as the air is moiſter than the cellular tiſſue, or the cellular tiſſue than the air, abſorbs the fluids diſperſed throughout the atmoſphere, or throws off thoſe which the vegetable contains. When the parts become ſtiff, and the liquors contained in the vegetable have no longer the ſame fluidity, the cells become filled with thick gum and reſin; which not being able to eſcape through the pores, nor to return into general circulation, become entirely hard; and are at length thrown out, when the ſtate of the vegetable, by not permitting the epidermis to dilate itſelf further, forces it to burſt.

3d. *The glandular pores.*—Theſe are apertures bordered with thick opaque and unequal rolls. Theſe pores ſerve for the movement and communication of the fluids in the interior of the vegetable. They are obſerved ſometimes indeed in the epidermis, but this caſe is exceedingly rare. There are two kinds of glandular pores, the ſmall and the large. The former are exceſſively ſmall. To the moſt powerful microſcopes they appear only like the ſmall holes made in a ſheet of paper with the point of a needle: ſometimes they are ſcattered, and few in number: at other times they are very numerous, and diſpoſed in regular ſeries, always according to the breadth, and never according to the length of the tiſſue. The large glandular pores are only a modification of them: one might even ſuppoſe that the union of the ſmall pores of one ſeries produces the large ones, the direction of which is the ſame as that of the ſeries. The reader muſt here call to mind what I have already ſaid of the porous tubes, the falſe tracheæ, and even the tracheæ. There are ſome very ſtriking relations between theſe different tubes, and the plan of nature is not equivocal.

Of the Epidermis.

This name is given to the exterior membrane formed by ſides of the outer cells; or rather the epidermis is only the term of the cellular tiſſue itſelf.

To relate every thing that authors have ſaid on this membrane, would fill a volume. No part in the organization of plants has given riſe to more reſearches, nor perhaps has led into more errors. The firſt fault is, to have compared it without reſtriction to the epidermis of animals. When this idea was once adopted, every thing elſe was conſidered as analogous. The epidermis, ſaid ſome writers, exiſts in all organized beings; it covers the naſcent embryo, and the individual which has arrived at the ſtate of decrepitude; it follows all the ſinuoſities of bodies, penetrates into their cavities, and protects the moſt delicate parts: thus in animals, after enveloping all the external parts, comprehending even the globe of the eye, it is ſeen falling back on the lips, penetrating into the inteſtinal canal, into the noſtrils, and the auditory paſſage; and in plants, it covers the ſtems, branches, leaves, flowers and fruits. The epidermis (add they) is not ſimilar in every part of the ſame being: ſometimes it is exceedingly fine, and ſometimes it aſſumes more conſiſtence; but in all caſes it is colourleſs and tranſparent. If it appears white on the trunk of the birch tree, and brown on the young branches, aſh-gray on the plum-tree, red and argenteous on the cherry tree, green on the young ſhoots of the almond-tree, and aſh-coloured on the old ones; this difference depends merely on the colour of the ſubſtances it covers, in the ſame manner as the white, black, and copper colour of the white negro or caffre depend on the colour of the mucous body. By following this compariſon, a new point of ſimilitude is thought to be obſerved in the dilatibility of the epidermis of animals and plants: it yields to all development, and extends in proportion as the being grows; it embraces only a ſmall ſurface in the fœtus of the animal, but it dilates inſenſibly and covers a much greater ſurface when the animal attains to its utmoſt growth. It is thus that the epidermis which covers the ſeeds of plants dilates and yields to the increaſe of the fruit, and that the epidermis which covers the embryo yields alſo to the increaſe of trees. The extenſion of this membrane will be found to be prodigious, when we conſider what the gourd was before its flower withered, and what the oak was when concealed in the acorn. But, as there are certain animals, the old epidermis of which detaches itſelf, and at the end of a certain time gives place to another; in the ſame manner there are certain vegetables which throw off their epidermis in order to aſſume a new one. It is obſerved that the epidermis of the trunk and branches of the plane-tree detaches itſelf in ſcrolls like that of oviparous quadrupeds.

Theſe compariſons, no doubt ingenious, are far from being exact in every point. It may even be ſaid that they are founded on imperfect obſervations. To be convinced of this, it will be ſufficient to reflect on the definition we have given of the epidermis of vegetables. This membrane is nothing but the exterior union of the cells of the circumference, and differs from the membranes which form the other ſides only by the changes occaſioned by its poſition. If it is leſs tranſparent, drier and firmer, it is becauſe it is continually expoſed to the influence of the light and the air, and to the contact of all thoſe bodies which float in the atmoſphere: but it is not in reality a diſtinct part; and it may be ſaid, ſtrictly ſpeaking, that vegetables have no organ analogous to the epidermis of animals. When vegetables grow large, the exterior membrane ſeems to dilate; but if this membrane becomes extended, it is becauſe the number of the cells is multiplied at the circumference as at the exterior, and that conſequently

the ſides which compoſe it are multiplied in proportion, and increaſe its capacity.

One objection remains to be combated. It may here be ſaid, Why is it ſo eaſy in the ſpring time to detach the epidermis from the young branches, if it does not really form a diſtinct organ? This may be explained in the following manner:—All cauſes which have an external action on the vegetable alter its ſurface, and detach from it the interior parts; but this ſeparation becomes more apparent when the vegetation is more vigorous, and when the fluids moiſten the cellular tiſſue, and fill the tubes; for, as the diſorganized ſurface cannot then develop itſelf with the reſt, it ceaſes to adhere, and often comes off in fragments, or is inſenſibly deſtroyed. This is exactly what takes place in the ſpring.

In a word, this exterior ſtratum, which ſo many circumſtances tend to deſtroy, and which almoſt always exhibits traces of its diſorganization, is not compoſed of the laſt membrane only; the interior part of the cellular tiſſue is found in it, as is evident in the plane tree, and ſtill more in the green oak, which produces cork. What has been here ſaid is applicable only to the ſtems and branches, which do not die in the courſe of the year; for in herbs, and the annual parts of ligneous plants, ſuch as the leaves, flowers, bracteæ, &c. the ſurface does not detach itſelf from the reſt of the tiſſue.

But the epidermis of vegetables has no reſemblance to that of animals; and, though it is certainly formed by the exterior part of the cellular tiſſue, it is no leſs true that its nature is modified by ſecondary cauſes, and that in fact becomes an organ, the functions of which are very diſtinct, and highly important. In the infancy of the vegetable, when all the parts are ſoft and mucilaginous, it oppoſes at the ſame time the diſunion of the naſcent organs, and the too ſtrong action of the fluids. At a more advanced age, when the juices are leſs abundant, it prevents their too ſpeedy evaporation, and maintains a juſt equilibrium between the ſolids and the fluids. At all times it ſecures the vegetable from the deleterious influence of meteors, and ſhelters it from exceſſive heat, cold, moiſture, and drought. In a word, it protects it againſt all external cauſes which might hurt it. Beſides this, it ſerves for ſenſible and inſenſible tranſpiration, and the abſorption of gas, and of thoſe fluids diſperſed throughout the atmoſphere. For this reaſon it is often pierced with very viſible pores: I ſay often, becauſe it is not a general law; and the epidermis of pulpy fruits, for example, has no apparent pores. I muſt add, alſo, that theſe fruits tranſpire very little, as Dr. Hale has ſhown in his Vegetable Statics.

On the Organizing Subſtance, or Cambium of Duhamel. Hypotheſis on the Formation and Development of the Cellular Tiſſue, and the Tubular Tiſſue.

All the parts of the vegetable have, at firſt, been mucilaginous and fluid; and it is only in the ſucceſſion of time that the tiſſue becomes firm and ſolid. This ſtate of feebleneſs is viſible in the ſeed. The embryo at firſt is but a drop of mucilage, in which the moſt powerful microſcopes diſcover no organ. This ſubſtance has a vitreous appearance. It is ſpeedily dried and deſtroyed by the contact of the air. Properly ſpeaking, it is not a fluid; it is an organized ſubſtance, ſimilar to the white of an egg. The organizing ſubſtance is formed during the whole time of the increaſe, and it depoſits itſelf in that part of the tiſſue where the vegetables ought to acquire the greateſt vigour. In the monocotyledons it is placed around each ligneous filament; in dicotyledons it is at the ſurface of the ſoft part of the wood and the medullary canal. Every day, therefore, the ligneous filaments of the cotyledons are ſeen to aſſume

more volume, and the concentric ſtrata of the dycotyledons to be multiplied, and their pith to be converted into wood. The organizing ſubſtance is the more abundant, and is renewed with more facility as the individual is younger and ſounder; as it is in a more favourable ſituation, and as the ſeaſon is better fitted for vegetation. This ſubſtance inſenſibly aſſumes determinate forms, whether the fluids develop in it, by their impulſe, the cells and the tubes, or whether an unknown power acts in it alone, and determines theſe developments; or whether, as is probable, theſe two cauſes, united and combined, act in concert to change into membranous tiſſue the organizing ſubſtance, it is certain that the vegetable acquires a more conſiderable volume, and that it daily lengthens, and becomes thicker. To explain the two phænomena of lengthening and becoming thicker, the action of which is ſimultaneous, we muſt acknowledge that the expanſive force acting in the membranous tiſſue newly created is modified by the nature of the tiſſue itſelf. It is compoſed, as we have already ſeen, of two organic elements, one of which is cellular tiſſue, formed of the cells, whoſe diameter is nearly equal in every direction; the other is the tubular tiſſues, formed of the ſmall and large tubes contiguous to each other. Let us ſuppoſe, for a moment, that the fluids imbibed by the vegetable are the cauſe of this diſſimilarity in the tiſſue. We may do ſo the more, as this ſyſtem is not void of probability. By way of example, let us employ the embryo: let us take the ſeeds before fecundation: it is attached to the mother plant by the umbilical cord, the organization of which no doubt varies according to the ſpecies. By the help of the veſſels which unite this organ to the ſeed, the fluids penetrate into the organizing ſubſtance; and their impulſe being determined by the canals which afford them a paſſage, they then trace out the rout which the fluids will afterward purſue, and determine the order of the future developments. Being vigorouſly puſhed in different points, which vary according to the ſpecies, they open the longitudinal tubes, and then filter ſlowly through their ſides, depoſit themſelves in the organizing ſubſtance, and favour the development of the cells. In the firſt caſe, the fluids are puſhed by the force which gives motion to the ſap; in the ſecond caſe, they iſſue forth and penetrate the organizing ſubſtance only, becauſe they tend to aſſume an equilibrium. Theſe two forces, balanced by each other, produce a multitude of intermediate ſhades between the longitudinal tubes and the perfect cellular tiſſue. But this theory is ſtill far from explaining the phænomena of vegetable organization. There doubtleſs exiſt a thouſand other phyſical cauſes, the influence of which cannot be calculated; and above all theſe cauſes ought to be placed the organizing power, the principle of which is totally unknown to us.

However, the cells and tubes being once formed, they increaſe till the inſpiſſation and induration of the membranes preſent an obſtacle to their development. During the growth of the membranous tiſſue, the fluids carried into the tubes, by ſeveral forces combined, determine the direction of the elongation by the impulſe which they give to the organic moleculæ. But the cells ſuffer themſelves to be penetrated by the fluids only in a ſlow manner; and, being ſubjected to no force which determines their development in one direction rather than in another, they grow and dilate themſelves in every direction. It would thence follow, if the cells grew equal in number to the tubes, that the cells ought to ſerve more for extending the thickneſs than the length of the vegetable, and that the inverſe would be the caſe with the tubes; but when the latter are greatly multiplied, their number compenſates for the ſmall thickneſs which each has, and they then contribute no leſs than the cells

to the ſenſible thickening of the vegetable. Nay, more, the maſs of the tubes is continually increaſed in trees, while the cells are not multiplied in the ſame proportion. In a word, ſeveral other cauſes, which I ſhall explain hereafter, contribute to diſorganize them, and even to transform them into tubes, ſo that at the end of a certain time the maſs of the latter is far ſuperior to that of the cells.

EXPERIMENTS *and* OBSERVATIONS *on certain* STONY *and* METALLINE SUBSTANCES *which at different Times are ſaid to have fallen on the* EARTH, *&c. concluded from Page* 118.

Examination of the Stone from Benares.

THIS ſtone, as the count de Bournon has already remarked, has the moſt diſtinguiſhing characters. Indeed it is the only one in the four, ſufficiently perfect (if I may be allowed that expreſſion) to be ſubjected to any thing approaching to a regular analyſis.

The cruſt, or external black covering, is the firſt ſubſtance to which the attention is naturally directed. When a portion of this cruſt had been detached with a knife, or a file, and finely pulverized, I ſeparated the particles attractable by a magnet; and digeſted the unattractable portion with nitric acid, which was preſently decompoſed; but, owing to a ſtrong adherence of ſome of the interior and earthly parts of the ſtone, it did not diſentangle the coating or metalline part without ſome difficulty. The acid being ſufficiently naturalized, the ſolution was paſſed through a filter, and ſaturated to exceſs with ammonia. An abundant precipitate of oxide of iron was produced; and, when this oxide was ſeparated, I obſerved the ſaline liquor to have a greeniſh colour. I evaporated it to dryneſs: and rediſſolved the dry ſalt in diſtilled water. No precipitate was formed during the evaporation, nor was the colour of the ſolution entirely deſtroyed. It appeared to me like triple ſalt, deſcribed by Mr. Hermſtadt as an ammoniacal nitrate of nickel. By examination with pruſſiate of ammonia, it yielded a whitiſh precipitate, inclining to a violet colour; and, by various properties, I was ſoon confirmed in the opinion that nichel was preſent. Since I ſhall have occaſion more than once to treat of the triple compound, and ſince it has been only mentioned by Mr. Hermſtadt, it is neceſſary now to detail ſome of its diſtinctive characters. The ſame chemiſt informs us, that the three mineral acids, with ammonia, enter into ſimilar combinations with nickel; and I have obſerved that oxide of nickel can be diſſolved by nitrate and muriate of ammonia. The muriate ſeems to take up the largeſt quantity. The colour of this ſalt is by no means uniform: it is ſometimes graſs green, violet, roſe colour, inclining to purple, and I have ſeen it almoſt colourleſs. It ſeems to be purple, and to incline to roſe colour and violet, when all the oxide of nickel is not united to both acid and alkali, but, from the deficiency of ſalt, is held in ſolution by an exceſs of ammonia. In this caſe, evaporation, of courſe, precipitates the nickel in the ſtate of oxide, which is of a whitiſh green colour.

The nickel cannot be precipitated from a perfectly formed triple ſalt by any reagent I have tried, except by a pruſſiate, or a hydrogenized ſulphuret of ammonia. Potaſh and lime, as well as, I preſume, other bodies, ſtanding in the order of affinities before ammonia, decompoſe the ſalt; but the nickel is then continued in ſolution by the diſengaged ammonia.

As it may be imagined that I have occaſionally met with copper, when I deſcribe a violet or purple ammoniacal ſolution, it is right to obſerve, that to avoid this error, I have either reduced the liquor to a neutral ſtate,

and endeavoured, without ſucceſs, to obtain from it a precipitate, with a ſolution of ſulphureted hydrogen gas; or, by adding an acid to ſlight exceſs, and immerſing a piece of iron, I have not been able to detect a trace of copper. Theſe, and many other trials, when they do not appear to be made before the eſtimation of the quantities of nickel, have been conſtantly made afterward.

But, to return to the incruſtation or coating of the ſtone, the decompoſition of the nitric acid ſhowed the preſence of matter at leaſt nearly metallic, although not attractable; and the examinations made of the liquor from which the iron was precipitated, aſcertained the preſence of nickel beyond diſpute. The difficulty of obtaining the coating of the ſtone, either diſtinct from matter not belonging to it, or in ſufficient quantity, induced me to relinquiſh the idea of attempting to give the proportions of its conſtituent parts.

The ſtone being deprived of its covering, the ſhining particles irregularly diſſeminated next demand examination. I firſt examined the pyrites. Their very looſe texture made it exceedingly difficult to collect the weight of 16 grains, which was however effected by the dexterity of the count de Bournon.

I digeſted theſe, at a low heat, with weak muriatic acid; which acted gradually, and diſengaged a trifling but ſenſible quantity of ſulphureted hydrogen gas. After ſeveral hours, I found the acid diſcontinued its action. The whole metalline part appeared in ſolution; but ſulphur and earthy particles were obſervable. The ſulphur, from its ſmall ſpecific gravity, was ſuſpended through the ſolution; while the earthy matter, which could not be ſeparated by mechanical means, was fortunately left at the bottom of the digeſting veſſel. I decanted off the ſolution, holding ſuſpended the ſulphur; and, by repeated waſhing, ſeparated every thing belonging to the pyrites from the inſoluble earthly matter, the ſubtractions of which reduced the weight of real pyrites to 14 grains. I next obtained the ſulphur, by filtration. When it was as dry as I could make it, without fear of its being ſublimed, its weight was two grains. To the filtrated liquor I added nitrate or barytes, by way of detecting any ſulphuric acid which might have been preſent; but no cloudineſs enſued. I then ſeparated, by ſulphate of ammonia, the barytes thus added, and precipitated the iron with ammonia. The liquor, on the ſubſidence of oxide of iron, appeared of a violet purple colour: it contained nickel, which I threw down with ſulphureted hydrogen gas, there being already a ſufficient exceſs of ammonia in the ſame ſaline liquor to form an alkaline hydrogenized ſulphuret. The oxide of iron, after ignation, weighed 15 grains; and the ſulphuret of nickel, reduced to an oxide, weighed, after the ſame treatment, ſomething more than one grain. The proportions of the ſubſtances contained in the pyrites of the ſtone from Benares may therefore be conſidered nearly thus:

	Grains.
Sulphur - - -	2
Iron - - - -	10½
Since 15 grains of the oxide repreſent about that quantity of iron,	
Nickel, nearly -	1
Extraneous earthy matter -	2
	15½

It is obſervable that, notwithſtanding the loſs appears to be only half a grain, it was probably more, becauſe the ſulphur could not be reduced to the ſame ſtate of dryneſs in which it exiſted when in combination with the iron; not to ſay that it was, in a ſmall degree, volatilized with the hydrogen gas diſengaged during the ſolution.

The weight of nickel is a mere eſtimation. We are not yet ſufficiently acquainted with that metal to ſpeak of it with accuracy, except as to its preſence. Upon the whole,

however, it may be concluded, that theſe pyrites are of a very particular nature; for, although Henkel has obſerved that ſulphur may be ſeparated from pyrites by muriatic acid, it is by no means the uſual habitude of pyrites to be of ſuch eaſy decompoſition.

The other ſhining particles immediately ſeen, when the internal ſtructure of the ſtone is expoſed, are the malleable iron. Before I ſtate the examination of this iron, I muſt remark, that preliminary experiments having ſhown me it contained nickel. I treated ſeveral kinds of the moſt pure irons I could obtain, with nitric acid; and precipitated the oxide from the metallic ſalt by ammonia. The quantity of oxide I obtained from 100 grains of iron was from 144 to 146. I may conſequently infer, that 100 grains of pure iron acquire, by ſuch a proceſs, 45 grains of oxygen; and that, whenever a metallic ſubſtance, ſuppoſed to be iron, does not, under the ſame circumſtances, acquire the ſame proportionate weight, ſomething is either volatilized, or left in ſolution. Hence, when a metallic alloy of nickel and iron preſents itſelf, a judgment may, at leaſt, be formed of the quantity of nickel, by the deficiency of weight in the precipitated oxide of iron.

This mode of treatment was not allowed me in the examination of the coating of the ſtone, becauſe it was impoſſible to know in what ſtate of oxidizement the iron exiſted. But, as the particles diſſeminated through the whole maſs are clearly metallic, a very tolerable idea of the quantities of nickel contained in them will be obtained, by noting the quantity of oxide of iron ſeparated, as above deſcribed. 25 grains of theſe metallic particles were therefore heated with a quantity of nitric acid, much more than ſufficient to diſſolve the whole. Some earthy matter, which, as in a former caſe, was not ſeparable by mechanical means, remained after a complete ſolution of the metal had been effected. This earthy matter, after being ignited, weighed two grains. The real matter of the preſent examination was therefore reduced to 23 grains, and was in complete ſolution. I added ammonia to a very ſenſible exceſs. The oxide of iron was thereby precipitated, and, being collected and ignited, it weighed 24 grains; whereas, according to my experiments, $33\frac{1}{3}$ grains ſhould have been produced from the ſolution, had it contained nothing but iron. I examined the ſame liquor, when free from ferruginous particles, and diſcovered it to be the triple ſalt of nickel. Hence, allowing for loſs, the quantity of nickel may be eſtimated, by calculating the quantity of iron contained in 24 grains of oxide. Thus if 145 grains of oxide contain 100 of iron, about $16\frac{1}{2}$ are contained in 24 of oxide. This would ſuppoſe the 23 grains of alloy to conſiſt of $16\frac{1}{2}$ iron and $6\frac{1}{2}$ nickel; which, if the uſual loſs be added to the $16\frac{1}{2}$ grains of iron, and deducted from the nickel, may not be very remote from the truth.

I ſhall next examine the globular bodies, alſo irregularly diſperſed throughout the ſtone. A number of them were reduced to fine powder; but nothing metallic could be ſeparated by the magnet. As a preliminary experiment, I ſought for pyrites, by digeſtion with muriatic acid; but no hepatic ſmell was in the leaſt perceivable, nor was white carbonate of lead at all altered by being held over the mixture. I therefore conclude theſe globular bodies do not envelope either iron or pyrites. By way of analyſis, I treated 100 grains with potaſh, in a ſilver crucible; and, after the uſual application of a red heat, ſeparated as much ſilica as poſſible, by muriatic acid and evaporation. The ſilica being collected on a filter, corbonate of potaſh was added to the filtrated liquor; by which a precipitate almoſt wholly ferruginous was produced. This precipitate was collected in the common way; then

boiled with potaſh, to extract alumina; and, by ſuperſaturating the alkaline liquor with muriatic acid, and precipitating by carbonate of ammonia, an earth was gathered, which I afterward found to be partly, if not entirely ſiliceous. After rediſſolving, in muriatic acid, the portion of the ferruginous matter rejected by the potaſh, I precipitated by ammonia, what I took to be entirely oxide of iron; but, after igniting it, and again attempting to rediſſolve the whole in muriatic acid, more ſilica was left. The non-exiſtence of lime was proved, by the addition of carbonate of ammonia, immediately after the ſame alkali, pure, had thrown down what I took wholly for oxide of iron. I had now obtained every thing in the ſubject of my analyſis, except magneſia and nickel. The former, and a trace of the latter, were held by carbonic acid in the liquor, from which the ferruginous precipitate was, in the firſt inſtance, thrown down by carbonate of potaſh; and the latter was found in the laſt-named muriate of ammonia. I diſengaged the magneſia, by the aſſiſtance of potaſh, and by evaporating to dryneſs. The oxide of nickel was precipitated by hydrogenized ſulphuret of ammonia.

Under all circumſtances, I am induced to ſtate the proportions of conſtituent parts thus;

Silica - - -	50
Magneſia - - -	15
Oxide of iron - -	34
Oxide of nickel - -	2½
	101½

The exceſs of weight, inſtead of the uſual loſs, is owing to the difference of oxidizement of the iron, in the ſtone and in the reſult of the analyſis; which will be found to be the caſe in all analyſes of theſe ſubſtances; indeed it is always neceſſary to reduce the oxide to the red ſtate, as being the only one to be depended upon. To avoid future repetition, I ſhall alſo obſerve, firſt, that by preliminary experiments I could not detect any other ſubſtance than thoſe mentioned. Secondly, that the earth obtained as alumina appeared to me to be moſtly, if not entirely, ſiliceous; becauſe, after it had been ignited, and again treated with potaſh and muriatic acid, I found it was very nearly all precipitated by evaporation. Thirdly, I examined, and judged of, the ſilica collected from the oxide of iron, in the ſame way. Fourthly, the weight of the magneſia is given, not immediately, as obtained by evaporation, but after a ſubſequent ſolution in an acid, and precipitation by potaſh. And, fifthly, the proportions are taken from the mean of two analyſes.

Nothing remains to be examined, of the ſtone from Benares, except the earthy matter, forming a cement or matrix for the ſubſtances already examined. 100 grains of this matter were, by mechanical means, ſeparated as perfectly as poſſible, from the pyrites, iron, and globular bodies, and analyſed as above. The mean reſult of two analyſes gave,

Silica - - -	48
Magneſia - -	18
Oxide of iron - -	34
Oxide of nickel - -	2½
	102½

ESSAY *on the* PRINCIPLES *and* LAWS *of* HISTORICAL COMPOSITION.

THERE exiſts not in the Engliſh, nor, in truth, in any other language, ancient or modern, a complete and accurate account of the principles and laws of the compoſition of hiſtory. An article written for publication in a Magazine cannot therefore be otherwiſe than deficient in comprehenſion, or too barren of detail and illuſtration. But ſuch a view of the criticiſm of hiſtory, as can be made compatible with the nature of this miſcellany, ſhall, for

the ſake of ſupplying an important deſideratum in the literature of taſte, be in the following paragraphs attempted.

Hiſtory, in its ſimpleſt and moſt extenſive ſenſe, implies merely '*any written narrative of appearances and changes in human life, or in the reſt of nature*.' It differs from philoſophy, in being, for as much as is poſſible, the record of perceptions to the excluſion of inferences; in exhibiting rather exiſtences than relations; in preſenting merely facts, without care for generalization or abſtractive arrangement. Not that it is poſſible to exhibit any ſucceſſion of exiſtences entirely without their relations, or to detail facts without arranging them ſomewhat in the order of philoſophy. But hiſtory makes the ſimple unreflecting expoſition of facts its primary buſineſs, and avoids all generalization, but what is indiſpenſibly requiſite to combine the different parts of the narrative, and to throw upon them their juſt lights.

From oratory, Hiſtory is eſſentially diſtinguiſhed; becauſe the former employs in the firſt inſtance only vocal ſigns actually enunciated with their concomitant attitudes, looks, and geſtures, to communicate whether the obſervations of ſenſe, or the deductions of reaſon and philoſophy; but no narrative, however eloquent or faithful, can become hiſtory, without being committed to writing. Tradition, as long as it paſſes by word of mouth alone, from memory to memory, is not hiſtory.

Hiſtory differs alſo from poetry, becauſe hiſtory relates only the truth of events, while poetry diſplays the probabilities of nature; becauſe poetry, in its ſtyle, confines itſelf to the exact uſe of certain combinations of long and ſhort ſyllables, which are denominated *metres*, while hiſtory indulges in every poſſible variety of thoſe combinations, without reſtriction to any ſet forms of them, a mode of writing, which is named *proſe*; and becauſe poetry labours conſtantly to paint with the power of living images to the imagination, and to inflame the heart with the very fire of native ſentiment, while hiſtory often aſpires no higher than to be clearly apprehended by the underſtanding.

'Truth of facts,' is the firſt and moſt eſſential excellence of Hiſtory. It muſt relate nothing for which the author has not had the immediate evidence of his own ſenſes and experience, or the teſtimony fully and unequivocally given, of others who have had ſimilar evidence of ſenſe and experience, or written or printed teſtimony, ſuch as, when thoroughly inveſtigated and weighed, becomes not inferior in value to the moſt ſatisfactory vocal teſtimony—or that demonſtrative evidence of reaſon, which belongs, in truth, rather to philoſophy than to hiſtory, becauſe it induces with certainty general truths of relation from the ſurvey and mutual compariſon of particular ones. No other merit can render that hiſtory worthy of eſteem which does not preſerve this authenticity in the facts it relates.

That knowledge of facts, which I receive from the vocal or written teſtimony of another, muſt be, in ſpite of every care, fainter and leſs impreſſive in its ſentiments and images than if I had it directly from my own perſonal experience. It is, therefore, of importance in hiſtory, that every thing ſhould be told in a manner that, in its effects to the underſtanding of the reader, may approach as nearly as poſſible to the very power of the immediate teſtimony of ſenſe. And hence it becomes neceſſary as the 'ſecond care,' after that for truth of facts, 'that he who attempts to relate any ſeries of events hiſtorically, ſhould have the moſt vivid conceptions imaginable in his own mind of thoſe things of which he endeavours to convey a knowledge to others.' They ſhould appear clear and ſtrong to his mind's eye, while he writes even ſo that if he do not then actually behold them, yet his conception of them ſhould be little leſs per-

fect than that of immediate ſight. He ſhould have ſurveyed them in every point of view, and ſhould have diſtinguiſhed in what preciſe lights they may be repreſented to the beſt advantage. He ſhould know what leading particulars are in every different tranſaction, to be abſtracted from the reſt, and to be preſented alone, as being fitter than the whole detail to make an impreſſion duly juſt and ſtrong on the reader's mind.

The next thing requiſite in the compoſition of Hiſtory, is 'that the writer duly know thoſe truths of generalization which muſt of neceſſity be aſſociated with his detail of particular facts, in order to give to theſe laſt that conſecutive union, without which they could not form hiſtory of any ſort.' Theſe are the rules of morality, of reaſoning, of phyſics, of taſte, of the arts, and of the practice of life, which conſtitute what is looſely called common ſenſe, becauſe they are commonly known in the age, the country, and the particular condition of life in which the hiſtorian happens to write. Not that the rules of common ſenſe will be ſufficient to give high excellence in this part of any hiſtorical compoſition. But without at leaſt thus much of general ſcience, there can be no ſort of hiſtory formed. And if even the principles of common ſenſe alone ſeaſonably appear throughout the piece, theſe will combine the facts in a manner not unintereſting. If the generalizations here employed riſe ſomewhat above mere common ſenſe, they muſt, however, not aſpire too far, and muſt riſe upon its foundations. Hiſtory loſes its proper nature when it is over-informed with refinements in philoſophy.

'Language,' is the next object that demands our care in hiſtory. He who writes Hiſtory of any ſort, ſhould be careful to uſe ſuch words and ſuch modes of combining them, as will make the facts and thoughts which he means to convey underſtood the moſt eaſily, the moſt exactly, and for the longeſt ſucceſſion of time, by the moſt illiterate of thoſe who know, in its purity, correctneſs, and propriety, the language in which he writes. His choice of words and phraſes muſt guide him to the uſe of a ſtyle, between the levity and familiarity of mere converſation on the one hand, and on the other the pedantic novelties of learning, and the figurative temerities of rhetoric. He ſhould avoid equally that harſhneſs and ſtiffneſs which will make it appear as if one wrote with difficulty, through unſkilfulneſs, and all thoſe labours of rhetorical art which ſhow as if ſtyle had been in the writer's care, more than matter; and diſguſt, becauſe it is wholly unnatural for him, who is duly careful reſpecting the truths which he relates, to attend at the ſame time finically to petty tricks in writing, and becauſe ſuch tricks, if ſucceſsful, would defeat his firſt purpoſe, by withdrawing attention more or leſs from the matter which he details. His ſtyle ſhould appear to be created by the natural colour and energies of his mind, and by the nature of his ſtory. It ought to poſſeſs all the accuracy, elegance, and variety of the moſt laborious art, yet to ſeem as if not an effort of art had been uſed in producing it. It ſhould unite ſtrength and dignity with ſweetneſs, variety, and eaſe.

Theſe remarks regard all hiſtorical compoſition, or every thing in which an account is given of any appearances or changes in nature, or in human life. But the laws of this kind of writing, are not to be ſatisfactorily explained, unleſs we ſhall diſtinguiſh its different ſorts, and ſhow what conſtitutes the perfection of the character of each of them.

I ſhould ſuppoſe that all hiſtorical compoſitions may be arranged under theſe three ſpecies: Memoirs, Chronicles, and Epic Hiſtory.

Memoirs are 'narratives attempting, not to give a full account of any diſtinct event or combination of events, nor yet of what has regularly paſſed in every one of a certain number of

days, months, or years, but ſimply to give the ſum of the author's perſonal knowledge, or the reſults of his enquiries reſpecting the ſubject of the memoir, be that full or imperfect, whether it exceed not, in time, a few hours, or extend even to centuries.'

The ſimpleſt, humbleſt, and ſhorteſt of theſe memoirs, are thoſe ſhort unconnected narratives which fill our common newſpapers. Theſe are extracts from letters, or ſhort reports, written even originally for the very purpoſe of newſpaper publication, and in the exact form in which they appear. They often exceed not the length of a very few lines. Their perfection is to be in authority of evidence, faithfully what they pretend, and to be expreſſed with clearneſs and ſimplicity of language, as well as with a diſtinctneſs and brevity, by which they may appear complete in themſelves, and not merely as parts of ſome longer narrative. The ſhorteſt of them, which make but ſingle periods or paragraphs, ought not indeed to be armed with epigrammatic point, but to be formed as it were in the mould of ſome of thoſe epigrams of the ancient Greeks, which delight by their unity and delicacy of thought, and by a ſimple and lucid elegance of expreſſion, which is, to the thought, ſomewhat as the fineſt gauze is to the beauty of the female boſom which it veils.—The longer narratives in newſpapers are reports of parliamentary debates, and of trials in courts of law. The excellencies which deſerve to be chiefly cultivated in theſe, are fidelity, gravity of manner, ſimplicity, clearneſs, and correctneſs of language. Not, however, that this gravity of manner ſhould in any caſe become dullneſs, or that it ſhould not aſſume, whenever the nature of the matter will allow, a tone of vivid and glowing eloquence.'

A ſomewhat different ſpecies of memoirs, of which too newſpapers become accidentally the vehicles, conſiſts of thoſe which are called *State-papers*. Theſe are copies of treaties, orders of government, official letters by generals, magiſtrates, or miniſters addreſſes from the people to their ſovereign, ſpeeches and meſſages addreſſed by the king to his parliament or people, minutes of miniſterial and diplomatic communications, &c. They hold in hiſtory no higher character than that of memoirs: for they record only the intentions or experience and obſervations of their authors reſpecting the circumſtances and events which are the ſubjects of them. When their authenticity is unqueſtionable, they are the moſt important of all the written documents of hiſtory; becauſe, though even in them may lurk falſehood and error, they are, however, more likely to contain, ſo far as they go, the expreſs truth, than any other written records of events. The language which they ſpeak ought ever to be grave, dignified, perſpicuous, accurate, even to the exactneſs of definition; poliſhed, yet without viſible affectation of ornament; copious, without tautology, verboſity, or diffuſion; often animated to the moſt impaſſioned ardour of eloquence, that is not incompatible with grace and dignity, never, even in the minutes of converſations, entirely foregoing the advantage of theſe two qualities. We poſſeſs in the Engliſh language a greater number of models in this way of writing than are to be found in any one elſe, ancient or modern. From the reign of queen Eliſabeth to the preſent time, the ſtate-papers of the Engliſh government have been often diſtinguiſhed by peculiar excellence of compoſition. Such are many of thoſe which were written by the Cecils. Not inferior, unleſs where deformed by peculiar quaintneſs, are thoſe by the great lord chancellor Bacon. Many of the papers which paſſed between Charles the firſt and the Long Parliament, eſpecially thoſe in the compoſition of which Charles himſelf, or Falkland, or Clarendon held the pen, poſſeſs all the beſt merits of this ſort of writing. The ſtate-papers of the Engliſh government in the reign of queen Anne, afford ſome fine examples of the eloquence proper to this

ſpecies of compoſition. But its beſt models are to be found in the greateſt variety in the ſeries of the London gazettes, ſince the commencement of the preſent reign. Since the American revolution, and even in its very beginning, many admirable papers of this ſort have been made public by the Anglo-American government. Among the ſtate-papers of the French governments ſince the year 1788, are a few models of uncommon excellence.

There exiſt many collections of hiſtorical letters, which belong alſo to this claſs of Memoirs. Theſe are letters, which though not acts of governments, nor of public bodies addreſſing governments, yet contain often information equally authentic and original concerning the progreſs of great affairs. Cicero's Letters to Atticus, and to his other friends, are fine ſpecimens of the candour, the conſideration, the veracity, the eaſe, clearneſs, and ſpirit of narrative, which ought in ſuch epiſtolary memoirs to be ever carefully preſerved. The younger Pliny's Letters are not uniformly hiſtorical, but have many ſhort memoirs of incidents not unimportant in public and private life, agreeably ſcattered through them. The Epiſtles of Hugo Grotius, written while he was ambaſſador from the queen of Sweden, at the court of France, are leſs admirable for delicately pure Latinity, than for their merit as political memoirs. The Engliſh collection of State Letters, which bears the name of Cabbala, has in it a few epiſtolary memoirs, which are not ill written. Nothing can exceed in this reſpect the value of thoſe official letters of lord Bolingbroke, which were publiſhed together eight or ten years ſince by Mr. Parke. They are written with a happy and elegant clearneſs and facility, which even their author himſelf has not rivalled in any other parts of his works. The Letters publiſhed by Mr. Coxe, in his accounts of the great earl of Orford, and of his brother Horatio, lord Walpole, are, as political memoirs, for the greater part, of very inferior merit. The Letters of the late general Waſhington, will always hold a diſtinguiſhed rank among the epiſtolary memoirs of great men. I have read few epiſtolary narratives of military tranſactions, more pleaſingly elegant, than thoſe in which Peliſſon ſent to Paris, from day to day, an account of the Dutch campaign of Lewis the Fourteenth of France. If the Letters of madame Sevigné may be regarded as epiſtolary memoirs of the court of France, they cannot be denied to be very charming ones.

The 'Narratives of Voyages and Travels,' are alſo memoirs. They pretend only to record what their reſpective authors obſerved, and put in writing, or committed to memory, in paſſing from place to place, by ſea or land. Their firſt excellence ariſes when the relater has always a ſincere intention to write nothing but truth. The ſecond merit in the traveller and his narrative, is when by the moſt careful and exact obſervation of the objects which he has occaſion to ſurvey, he actually qualifies himſelf to give accounts of them at once faithful and ſatisfactory. The third is when by the native powers of his mind, and by the manner in which theſe have been cultivated, he is enabled to conceive ſtrongly, and to deſcribe clearly and impreſſively, whatever comes under his notice. His attention ought to be keen and ſteady; his memory tenacious, all his faculties ever awake, and in lively exertion. Any man who is not without common ſenſe, and who enjoys a ſound and healthy ſtate of the organs of ſenſation, may give an entertaining account of things which he has obſerved on a journey. But the higheſt talents, improved by a culture the moſt various and beneficial, are requiſite to qualify a traveller to make all thoſe obſervations, which may be advantageouſly united in a narrative of this ſort. He ſhould combine the qualifications of the philoſopher with thoſe of the hiſtorian and the poet.

[To be continued.]

CONTEST BETWEEN TASTE AND FASHION.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

IN your remarks on the changes of manners, and the varied features of common life, you appear to me to have lately paid too little regard to what is, however, univerſally confeſſed, the influence of the fair ſex on the general condition of ſociety. Be it want of gallantry, or want of diſcernment in you, I ſhall not preſume to conjecture. This only I ſhall take upon me to ſay, that you would do much better to ſatirize the ladies, and even violently quarrel with them, than coldly to overlook them. With the reſt of the ſex I ſhall leave you to make your peace, or improve your favour, how beſt you may. But there are two dames of the firſt importance in the world, and the higheſt pretenſions, of whoſe rival characters and influence I am much inclined to attempt an account.

The two ladies I mean, have had a leading influence in ſociety, and have been rivals for the worſhip and affections of mankind, during many more years than I can tell. They have ever propoſed themſelves as the grand arbitreſſes of life in all its moſt agreeable concerns. Not a houſe ſhall be built; not a book ſhall be written; nor a coat cut, nor even a ſhoe fitted on; but each of theſe females ſhall contend to have it done in her own way. Their own ſex they take particularly under their care. From the milkmaid to the princeſs, not a woman in the world, high nor low, can entirely eſcape from being under their ſuperintendence.

Nor are mankind at all unwilling to own the power, and boaſt the favour of theſe dames. Men in all countries are apt to boaſt of many more favours from the fair ſex than ever they received. But to believe their admirers, never were there in the world any other two belles and beauties ſo unboundedly kind as theſe two. Not a man but boaſts of the partiality of one of them. Many even pretend to have had them both in keeping together. And yet ſo far is it from being allowed that they are in any reſpect eaſy in the diſtribution of their favours, that every man is ready to ſwear that never any other but himſelf was in the ſmalleſt degree in the favour of either of the ladies. All confeſs that they are not to be followed and courted without a ruinous expence. Yet hardly is there a man living, who would not even ruin himſelf with hearty good will for the very chance of becoming agreeable to them. Their own ſex, likewiſe, contend for the preference in their friendſhip, with an eagerneſs not leſs fond and impatient than the paſſion of lovers. A woman of any ſpirit would die ſooner than loſe the reputation, or the hope of the reputation of being among the favoured acquaintance of theſe two ladies. Jewels bought at the deareſt expence ſhall be deſpiſed and thrown aſide, as unfit for being worn, if it be ſuppoſed that either of theſe dames diſlike them; and even a ſtraw-bonnet ſhall be thought invaluable, if either of the two approve it. The theatres might be ſhut, for not Mrs. Billington, not Mrs. Siddons herſelf, could draw a dozen of ſpectators to viſit them, if the managers did not find means to perſuade the town, though very often untruly, that our two ladies are almoſt every night to be there. A mercer can ſcarcely ſell a yard of lace, ſilk, or muſlin, without impoſing it on his cuſtomers, that he has the honour of being ſole mercer to theſe univerſally admired dames. And, dear as our gracious ſovereign, with his queen, and his family, are to the whole nation; I do not imagine that the credit of being employed by their majeſties and the royal family, would be half ſo valuable to any tradeſman, as that of having the honour to receive fre-

quent orders from the two princeſſes of whom I ſpeak. Since they have ceaſed to go regularly to church, the places and duties of public devotion have been in a great meaſure deſerted. It is in the hope of gaining a peep at their charms as they riſe from the bath, or of ſcraping acquaintance with them at the public rooms, that ſo many perſons of all ranks haſten every ſummer to the watering places. And it was owing to a falſe report of their being to reſide in future at the court of the firſt conſul of France, that no fewer than ſixteen thouſand men and women of Great Britain had, ſome months ſince, placed themſelves under the inſpection of the police of Paris.

Yet although theſe ladies be thus, in common, the objects of the faſcinated admiration of all mankind; though there exiſt between themſelves an inceſſant contention for the ſame objects of deſire and purſuit, perhaps no two women in the world are more unlike each other.—One of them is enchantingly elegant and delicate in form, yet without any thing of the puny, the ſickly, or the feeble in her appearance. Her garb is ſimple, but inimitably graceful. In her looks and accuſtomed geſtures reigns a mingled expreſſion of modeſty, dignity, and piercing diſcernment. Her whole appearance, indeed, reminds you at once of the well-known form of the Venus di Medicis, and of that of the majeſtic nymph whom Xenophon, after Prodicus, repreſents to have allured Hercules to prefer to a life of pleaſure one of arduous virtue. Her ſize is more than mortal; but ſo perfect is the ſymmetry of her perſon, that it does not ſuggeſt to the beholder any idea of clumſy, gigantic bulk. In dreſs, furniture, food, ornaments, her chief delights are ſimplicity and cleanlineſs. She is paſſionately fond of the unvitiated charms of nature. The endleſsly varying lights and colours of the ſky, the ocean in a ſtorm, or gently undulating under the rays of the ſetting ſun; the ſandy waſte, thoſe eternal mountains, which form as it were the girdle of the earth; the rivers deſcending from them with awful magnificence, to diffuſe life and fertility over leſs elevated regions; the courſes of the planets, and the countleſs lights of the fixed ſtars, have often engaged her charmed, yet ſolemn contemplation. She delights in the mornings of ſummer to bruſh away with early ſteps the dews from the uplands, to wander by the banks of any ſlender rural ſtream which are here overgrown with wild ſhrubbery, and there ſubſide into ſmooth green mead, low and equal, but narrow—or in the heat of noon to take a boat, and hide herſelf in a bowery iſlet, in the midſt of ſome romantic lake. Of all the arts, ſhe is the fondeſt of Engliſh gardening, when it does not carry the diſguiſe of art too far, nor affect the picturesque to the ſacrifice equally of convenience, and of ſimple natural beauty. She will often, when in her wanderings ſhe happens to find ſuch, hide herſelf for days together in a ſnug Engliſh cottage, its walls of bricks, its roof of tiles, ſeated on a riſing ſlope, overhung with foliage, with a patch of kitchen garden behind, a ſpring of limpid water guſhing out from the ſide of the hill at ſome ſmall diſtance, and a brook paſſing with a courſe now ſlow, now rapid, here ſtraight, there meandering, along the margin of the mead. She is a great encourager of ruſtic labour, often ſmiles over the haymakers when they are at their work, and often meets the reapers when they go out in a morning with their ſickles to the field. At the horſe-race, the village aſſembly, the rural feſtival at the ſeat of the man of fortune, ſhe would gladly preſide, but can rarely obtain admiſſion, and is never treated with due reſpect. In town here, ſhe is yet more unkindly dealt with. She would regulate the diſpoſition and the arrangement of the buildings; but not a ſyllable of her advice will they, who have the power in theſe things, at any time liſten to.

Our architects are properly her ſervants, and in fact, avow themſelves to be ſuch; but theſe are merely ſlighted duties and empty profeſſions: when they are actually to draw a plan, and conſtruct an edifice, they become mere builders, neither knowing nor caring any thing about her—mere brick, timber, and plaſter-men. Twice or thrice of late years, ſhe appeared with tolerable ſatisfaction at the exhibitions of paintings at Somerſet-houſe. She attempted to ſhow herſelf at the laſt of theſe exhibitions; but was ſo ſhocked at the ſight of a multitude of portraits and certain hiſtory-pieces in the firſt room, that ſhe ſwooned in agony, and was carried out, as I have been told, in the arms of Mr. Barry. She went to hear the firſt lecture of Mr. profeſſor Fuſeli; but did not ſtay five minutes, and has never ſince attended to hear another of them. It is ſaid, that like Mrs. Billington laſt ſeaſon, ſhe uſed formerly to have engagements at both the winter theatres at once, and that ſhe then delighted to take the whole direction of the theatrical buſineſs upon herſelf. But the managers have of late complained that ſhe was exceſſively humourſome and expenſive, and did not always pleaſe the public in a way to fill their coffers. Many years ſince, therefore, they agreed to refuſe any renewal of her engagements. She was turned off with the utmoſt contempt. And now, when there ariſes any occaſion for the pretence of her preſence, a puppet figure is dreſſed up in a guiſe ſomewhat like her, and is produced to pit, boxes, and galleries, as if it were truly herſelf. Nor have theſe diſcernment to detect the impoſition. Poets pretend to much of her favour. But I am credibly informed the laſt Engliſh poet for whom ſhe had any regard was Goldſmith. She has not been partial to any Scottiſh poet ſince the death of Burns. Of all the living poets of Europe, ſhe is now the fondeſt of old De Lille: and to him, I believe, not even his young wife is kinder. Though this lady would, if ſhe could, be the miſtreſs of all the men, the friend and leader of all the women; yet ſhe addreſſes them ſo ſhyly, and partly through modeſty, in part out of pride and conſcious dignity, is ſo eaſily repulſed, that ſhe very rarely ſucceeds to her wiſhes in winning the ſubmiſſive and devoted attachment of thoſe ſhe addreſſes. On the other hand, ſhe herſelf is ſo nice in her diſcernment, and requires ſuch a union of excellencies in thoſe whom ſhe will grace with her favour, that not one out of ten thouſand of thoſe who make pretenſions to it, can ever have the ſlighteſt chance ever to obtain it. But of almoſt all things in the world, it is beyond a doubt the moſt deſirable: for there is nothing that confers ſo perfectly the character of a finiſhed gentleman; and there are even few things elſe that give ſo much the means of private and internal ſatisfaction. 'And pray then, what is this wonderful lady's name?' Her name is Taſte.

Her rival's name is Faſhion. There is in her form and aſpect a meretricious beauty, which conſiderably reſembles that of the princeſs D'Eboli, in Titian's famous painting of Philip the ſecond of Spain, with his naked miſtreſs. That beauty is deformed by a thouſand affectations, and ſet off by a thouſand coquettiſh airs. Amid all theſe prevail a wildneſs of frolic, and an arch miſchievouſneſs of humour, which render the nymph at once more attractive, and ten times more dangerous. She is withal capable of deceits and diſingenuous artifices for the attainment of her ends, ſuch as are ſcarcely to be matched by any other female. She is the very goddeſs of taylors, milliners, jewellers, and button-makers. The height of perfection conſiſts with her in inceſſant change. She changes her carriages, her horſes, her furniture, her wines, her cookery, her friends, her modes of amuſement, every thing in the world that as a female ſhe can uſe; and changes them continually.

Sometimes theſe are made to catch the aſpect, and ſeduce, by deceiving the followers of her rival, Taſte: ſometimes they are deſigned to outface Taſte, and cauſe her to be driven out of doors, by preſenting an appearance as unlike to hers as poſſible: ſometimes it is a wild caprice without certain deſign, or mere impatience of the ſame thing for two minutes, that prompts her ſickleneſs. It may be ſaid of her, that ſhe, every day, *mille ornatus habet*; but hardly of one of theſe, that ſhe *decenter habet*. She has a ſtrange averſion to nature, unleſs ſhe can torture it into the forms, and bedaub it with the colours of art. Of the ſervants of arts, artiſts who truly maintain that character are her averſion; artiſans, her deareſt favourites. She likes to give her orders to her tradeſmen, and to have them implicitly executed, as by a piece of machinery, without the ſmalleſt exerciſe of invention or deſign on the part of the tradeſmen themſelves. She delights to make her followers continually put on the garbs which become them the worſt, and affect eſpecially thoſe accompliſhments in which nature has entirely denied them ability to excel. If ſhe ſee an old or an ugly woman affect the airs of youth or beauty, ſhe never fails to perſuade the dame to wear preciſely that dreſs, and engage in thoſe exerciſes, which will the moſt conſpicuouſly tend to ridicule the vanity of the affectation. She perſuades thoſe who are the fondeſt of her, that the charms of rural nature are the moſt agreeable in the months of November, December, and January; and that May, June, and July, is the only time of the year in which it is pleaſant, to enjoy the gayeties of the court and the town, to ſpend the nights in crowded rooms, and at ſedentary amuſements, and to paſs the days in ſleep, or in the toil of dreſſing. She imitates Circe in her treatment of her admirers. And every man who is admitted to ſhare her favours; and every fine woman who is, at any time, flattered with the idea of enjoying her particular friendſhip, never fail to be in the end, hooted from her ſociety, and transformed into ſuch ſtrange ſorry looking figures, that they become the ſport of herſelf, and of all her followers. She pretends to be the ardent patroneſs of manufacturers and induſtrious tradeſmen: but in fact, by ſeducing to labour that amuſes her caprices, inſtead of improving the elegance of life, or augmenting the means for its ſubſiſtence, ſhe acts as their worſt enemy. She delights, in ſhort, to ſeduce all mankind, to make them ſilly or ridiculous, and to deny all knowledge. Above all, there is nothing for which ſhe is ſo anxious as to prevent her rival, Taſte, from acquiring the ſmalleſt credit in the world.

Thus, ſir, I have endeavoured to lay before you and the world, the two characters of theſe two dames. My wiſh is, as you will readily perceive, that Faſhion may be entirely hooted out of Britiſh ſociety, as one of the moſt abſurdly capricious, and the moſt miſchievous of beings; and that Taſte may henceforth obtain among us all that favour and regard, which are now ſhown to Faſhion.

I am, ſir, your
Greenwich, obedient ſervant,
Aug. 17, 1802. L— L—.

STALACTITICAL BRIDGE AT CLERMONT IN FRANCE.

AT Clermont is a natural curioſity, which has been for ſeveral centuries greatly admired. It is in a piece of ground divided on the one ſide, by a wall from the ſtreet, and bounded on the oppoſite ſide by a rivulet. Between the wall and the rivulet, the ſurface of the ground declines gradually in its level. Preciſely where it is at its greateſt height, there burſts out a ſpring of which the waters are ſtrongly impregnated with iron and calcareous earth. The water from this ſpring falls into the rivulet by a channel, or

courſe, which may be ſomewhat more than forty-five fathoms in length. But this water does not now run in its original courſe. That exhibits at preſent, one maſs of ſtalactitical ſtone, 240 feet long, appearing at its upper end juſt to riſe out of the ground, while at the other end, it is not leſs than ſixteen feet in height. From its commencement, the breadth is gradually enlarged, till it gains the extent of twelve feet. Along its ſurface is ſtill a gutter, which ſhews the priſtine courſe of the water. All this maſs of ſtone has been depoſited from the waters of the ſpring. Its formation appears to have been continued, till the ſtalactitical mound was raiſed to a height exceeding that of the ſource of the waters. Theſe waters then neceſſarily began to run in a new courſe. There are few or no other places in the world, in which ſuch a mound of ſtone formed by depoſition from water is to be ſeen. The new courſe for the water is cleared every eight days, to hinder it from being filled up in the ſame manner. The inhabitants of the place, by depoſiting under the water objects of many diverſities of form, procure incruſtations of the calcareous and ferruginous matter, which perfectly imitate the objects on which they are depoſited. Eggs, ſwallows, ducks, ſnakes, pears, lettuces, &c. of ſtone, have been thus procured, and are preſerved as curioſities by the inhabitants of Clermont. No object is more naturally imitated by theſe depoſitions, than a bunch of grapes. Athanaſius Kircher, the jeſuit, ſpeaks of this ſpring at Clermont, in terms of the higheſt admiration.

STORY OF THE MARCHIONESS DE VALMONT.

[From 'Memoirs of a Family in Switzerland; founded on Facts.']

LEFT an orphan at the age of ſeven years, I was committed by the teſtament of a father to the care of a diſtant couſin. She was my only female relation; a woman of much gayety, who by a union with the count de Bellcour, acquired rank, fortune, and a ſplendid eſtabliſhment; —a life of extreme diſſipation prevented her doing more for me than to place me in a convent, where I received my education, and obtained a ſafe abode; which I ſeldom quitted, except for a temporary reſidence at the chateau de Bellcour, ſome leagues from Paris. All that I obſerved there formed a ſtriking contraſt to the place I inhabited. I compared the dreary walls of the ſilent cloiſters to the chearful apartments of the chateau, adorned with paintings and decorated with ſumptuous gilding; which appeared doubly magnificent, reflected on all ſides by large and coſtly mirrors.—The regulated hours to which I was obliged to conform in the convent, were horribly dull compared to thoſe in the chateau, which brought a conſtant round of amuſement that marked every moment with gayety. The apartments and galleries echoing muſic and revelry, made me conſider with greater diſlike the dark cells and lonely cloiſters of my nunnery, which reſounded unceaſingly the veſper bells of the monaſtery, and the monotonous oraiſons of the holy ſiſterhood; whoſe wan and emaciated viſages, unadorned, unanimated, and rendered more gloomy by their black religious habit, ſeemed even more diſmal when contraſted with the mirthful faces, gay airs, and decorated perſons of the viſitors at the count's; and their lively converſation made me ſtill more diſguſted with the inſipid intercourſe of the nuns; which became daily more intolerably dull.

During my childhood, my viſits to the counteſs de Bellcour were ſeldom deſired; as I grew up they became more frequent. The pleaſures they procured me, gave me a vivacity which rendered my youth more attractive. I regarded the count and counteſs de Bellcour, as the miniſters of my en-

joyments, and conducted myſelf toward them with that engaging attention which procured me their affection.

When I had completed my ſixteenth year I was invited by the counteſs to ſpend a month at the chateau. Daily feſtivities marked the time; and I beheld it nearly elapſed with an inconceivable ſorrow, which made me fully ſenſible of the taſte I had imbibed for pleaſure, and the decided hatred I had long felt for a monaſtic retirement, without knowing why I experienced it.

Among the company I had frequently met at the count's, my fancy had ſelected an object of admiration.—This object was the young chevalier du Chateaufort. Tall, well formed, handſome, witty, and engaging, my heart acknowledged his ſuperiority.

The pleaſures I had ſo often enjoyed in his ſociety, ſeemed to be centered in him.—Fancy perſonified gayety and enjoyment in the figure of the amiable Chateaufort.—When I thought of happineſs I thought of him; and the ideas of each from frequent aſſociation became inſeparable. The chevalier was nephew to the count de Bellcour, and the conſtant inmate of his maternal uncle during his ſummer reſidence at the chateau.—Inhabited by him it ſeemed a paradiſe; and I lamented the approaching termination of my viſit, counting the lapſe of each hour as the loſs of ſomething invaluable.

The week before my departure, I was reckoning with a heavy heart, the few remaining days I was permitted to be abſent from the convent, when the counteſs entered my chamber, and diſcloſed to me the neceſſity of my preparing to take the veil, as the ſmall pittance bequeathed to me by my father (at whoſe deceaſe the family eſtates he had poſſeſſed devolved on the heir, a diſtant male relation) was not ſufficiently large to procure me any eſtabliſhment except a religious one.

Stunned by the intelligence I received, I ſat motionleſs, ſpeechleſs, and almoſt petrified with grief.—The counteſs ſeemed moved by my ſituation; ſhe ſoothed me, endeavoured to conſole me with the bright proſpect of future and eternal happineſs, as the reward of a ſhort temporary privation of uncertain enjoyments. My feelings were heedleſs of her conſolations, but my ſorrow was ſilent—tears were my only complaints. Madame de Bellcour endeavoured to dry them; and at length reminded me of the brilliant ball that was to enliven the chateau in the evening.

Although hitherto fondly devoted to feſtivity, ſadneſs would have turned from it now with averſion, had not the idea of the chevalier preſented itſelf to my imagination. His remembrance ſeemed to have the power of diſpelling my dejection, and even my fears. Joy and hope reanimated me with his idea;—inſpired by it my countenance became enlivened—my tears ceaſed, and madame de Bellcour imagined me better reconciled to the proſpect of a religious ſecluſion.

She left me to dreſs. Occupied by the remembrance of Chateaufort, I walked into the parterre, from thence ſtrolled into the domain ſurrounding the manſion, and at length reached a terrace that commanded an extenſive proſpect over ſeveral of the adjoining provinces; while my eyes wandered over the expanded view, the ſpire and turrets of a diſtant monaſtery reminded me of that where I was deſtined to ſpend my days. I ſickened at the thought—deſcended the terrace, and walked precipitately toward an arbour of treilis; where, throwing myſelf on a bench, I gave vent to the agitation of my mind.

I ſeemed to behold the horizon for the laſt time—I imagined I ſaw the maſſy walls of my nunnery preclude for ever the ſight of the world, now doubly endeared to me; and I fancied I heard the huge iron grates of my priſon creaking on their ruſty hinges,

and claſh together to incloſe me eternally.

I ſhrieked—wrung my hands in an agony of deſpair; and covering my face with a handkerchief, burſt into tears, and ſobbed aloud.

At length I felt a hand graſp mine, I perceived an arm encircle my waiſt, and found the gentle preſſure of lips to my cheek, while ſoft whiſpers enquired the cauſe of ſo much woe.

I ſtarted—looked around, and perceived the chevalier du Chateaufort.

I was not much paſt ſixteen—he was about three years older than myſelf. We had ſeen each other for upward of five with mutual approbation, but this was the firſt moment which diſcovered to ourſelves and each other a paſſion that had long exiſted unknown even to the hearts it had ſubdued.

Nature now inſtructed us both reſpecting an univerſal ſentiment, which ſeeks no verbal explanation in its commencement. Mutual glances now diſcovered a reciprocal regard.—Contented with feeling it and exciting it, we did not clothe our ſenſations with words.—We ſpoke of every thing but love.

The charms of the chevalier's converſation, and the feſtivity of the ball almoſt baniſhed the idea of my approaching ſacrifice during the evening.

The certainty of having made an impreſſion on Chateaufort improved my appearance. Nothing is ſo decorative as a lover's adulation.—My eyes were enlivened, my colour was heightened, I dreſſed myſelf with care, and danced with a ſpirit that attracted the regards of all preſent. The chevalier was my partner—Nature had given him many advantages, education had improved them; and he was ſenſible of them, without aſſuming more than he merited.—I had always thought him charming, but now he was more intereſting than ever. While in his company I thought only of him; but on retiring to my chamber at night, I mingled with his remembrance that of my approaching and perhaps eternal ſeparation from him; and paſſed the hours allotted to repoſe without the power of finding any. Reſtleſs and uneaſy, I roſe early; and finding the family had not aſſembled I ſtrolled into the gardens.

Inſtinctively I bent my courſe toward the arbour, where, on the preceding day I had been ſurpriſed by the chevalier. On entering, I perceived him ſeated in its receſs. He aroſe, and advanced to meet me with an air of gayety: mine was fled, and he perceived it.

'Wherefore this appearance of dejection, mademoiſelle?'

I was unable to ſpeak, but I ſighed heavily, while tears ruſhed to my eyes.

'Alas!' continued the chevalier, regarding me mournfully, 'this grief recalls to me that which I witneſſed yeſterday, and which I forgot in the lovely ſmiles which ſucceeded it; charming at all times you are irreſiſtably ſo when gayety beams in your looks.—Let me recall it for both our ſakes, and let me in joy again loſe the remembrance of your ſadneſs.—Ah! mademoiſelle, why do you continue to weep?'

'I mourn my approaching departure,' replied I, 'and'—

'But you will not be abſent long,' interrupted the chevalier.

'Yes, ſir; I ſhall be abſent a great while.'

'No, mademoiſelle, you muſt not be ſo cruel, you muſt conſent to viſit us again!—and ſoon—very ſoon.'

'Alas! never.'

'How—what do you ſay, mademoiſelle?—never!—Ah! what do you mean—is it to ſport with my feelings that you pronounce this cruel ſentence in jeſt?—or is it rather to prove me that you purpoſe the attempt?'

'Ah! no chevalier, neceſſity conſtrains me to act againſt my inclinations, which revolt at the idea of a monaſtic life, to which I ſhall be compelled to aſſent.'

'A monaſtic life! Do you then purpoſe to aſſume the veil?'

'I ſhall be obliged to take it.'

'By whom?'

'Madame your aunt propoſes it, and I muſt not refuſe.'

'You muſt refuſe, mademoiſelle, unleſs you intend to drive me to diſtraction. I ſhould never ſurvive your loſs. Ah! mademoiſelle, conſent to oppoſe their wiſhes, yield to mine, and make me completely bleſſed.'

'And is it for an unprotected orphan, deſtitute of fortune, to oppoſe the wiſhes of thoſe to whom ſhe is obliged? The counteſs, your aunt, has heaped numberleſs favours on me, and I muſt not be ungrateful.'

'Ah! my dear Heloiſe, you ſhall not want a protector if you will honour me with that title.—Say will your heart confer it on me?'

I ſmiled conſent, while the impaſſioned chevalier threw himſelf on his knees at my feet, and awaited the ſentence which we imagined was to govern our fate. I pronounced aſſent to his deſires in a tremulous voice, while his lips ſealed vows of eternal conſtancy on the hand I permitted him to carry to his boſom. The hours flew on the wings of love, while we remained heedleſs of their flight.—We were miſſed at the chateau, the count came in queſt of us, and finding us together was confirmed in his ſuſpicion of our attachment.

'This will never do, my dear chevalier,' cried his uncle, ſhaking his head, 'you forget that the hand of mademoiſelle de la Motteville is deſtined for you; and that you can never hope to be permitted to ſolicit that of the amiable Heloiſe.'

The chevalier looked confounded; I felt equally ſo; and the count changed the converſation to ſpare our embarraſſment.

During the remainder of the day, Chateaufort was grave, thoughtful, and even diſtant to me.—Hope yielded to deſpair, joy to ſadneſs, and love was ſucceeded by pique.—On the morrow the chevalier departed.—I was ſeriouſly offended that he had left me without uttering the tender adieus I imagined I had a right to expect from him; and gave way to a diſpleaſure as ſtrong as my affection had been animated.

I was in this diſpoſition of mind when the counteſs de Bellcour entered my chamber one morning, with an air that announced ſhe had ſomething to communicate.—Taking a ſeat beſide me, ſhe informed me ſhe was commiſſioned to make propoſals to me from a gentleman who had conceived a violent paſſion for me on the night of the ball.—Madame de Bellcour complimented me on my appearance that vening, and congratulated me on the conqueſt I had obtained. 'Every thing that is ſplendid,' ſaid ſhe, 'waits your acceptance; rank, fortune, and a magnificent eſtabliſhment are offered to you by the marquis de Valmont. It is neceſſary, however, I ſhould introduce to you the perſon who ſolicits your favour.—He is upward of fifty, diminutive, meagre, ſwarthy, unpleaſing in his manners, moroſe in his diſpoſitions, and his natural deformity and age are increaſed by the exceſſive debaucheries of an intemperate youth;—but to counter-balance all this, he is extremely rich.'

'Ah! madam, your portrait, ugly as it is, flatters the hideous original,' exclaimed I. 'The deformity of the marquis attracted my obſervation on the night of the ball; on which evening we each gazed equally on the other.'

'I may then inform him,' interrupted the counteſs, 'that you were mutually ſtruck with each other; and that he may flatter himſelf with your attention.'

I could not refrain from ſmiling at the arch manner of madame de Bellcour, while I requeſted her to annihilate the marquis' hopes inſtead of encouraging them.

'You refuſe his ſuit then,' reſumed the counteſs: 'Think well before you decide, my dear Heloiſe; remember the ſcantineſs of your paternal property, and that when I am no more,

you will perhaps be left without a friend on whoſe kindneſs or protection you could depend. I am much older than you; and the fear of leaving you deſtitute induced me to propoſe your aſſuming a religious habit as the only means to ſecure you an aſylum. The count my huſband regards you—but he is aged; and at his deceaſe our fortune muſt deſcend to the baron de Villeprès.'

'Madam,' replied I, 'imagine not I feel any claims on you; your kindneſs has already heaped favours on me which gratitude is willing to acknowledge with thankfulneſs.—Alas! I feel that I am deſtitute of fortune, and that you are my only friend and protector.'

I burſt into tears at the remembrance of the chevalier.—He had promiſed to be a protector to me, but he had now declined the office.—My pride was wounded—diſappointed love armed itſelf with vengeance, and prompted me to accept a ſplendour which might hereafter dazzle the baſe lover by whom I was deſerted. I imagined he had ſacrificed his paſſion for me to a mercenary alliance with the hated rival whom the count had recalled to his remembrance. I had informed myſelf reſpecting mademoiſelle de la Motteville, and found ſhe was an heireſs of immenſe fortune.

My paſſions were ſtrong by nature, had never been reſtrained, and I attempted not to ſubdue them;—ſubmitting to their headſtrong fury in a moment during which I was governed by rage, jealouſy, and deſpair, I authorized the counteſs to acquaint the marquis de Valmont that I accepted his propoſals.

He arrived on the ſame day at the chateau de Bellcour with a ſplendid equipage and numerous retinue.—As I ſtood on the terrace I beheld it advance with a mixture of pride and regret. The marquis deſcended from it while the full glare of day diſcovered an uglineſs I had but half conceived by candle light. He limped into the chateau—I entered by another door; and would have avoided him by flying to my own chamber as an aſylum againſt his perſecutions of compliment; but as I was nimbly tripping up the grand ſtaircaſe on tiptoe, I turned ſhort on the landing place, where the marquis had reſted to take breath; and encountered him with the exclamation of 'O, my God! what a horrible figure!'

Occupied with the remembrance of the chevalier's, I was ſtruck forcibly by the aſtoniſhing contraſt which preſented itſelf unexpectedly and abruptly, and the exclamation of ſurpriſe and diſguſt was involuntary.

I have reaſon to believe the marquis had diſtinctly heard this firſt ſalutation. He was not, however, ſentimental enough to be repulſed by this teſtimony of my averſion. His paſſion had nothing of refinement. He wiſhed to repair, if poſſible, the wrecks of a conſtitution ſhattered by an immoderate propenſity to vicious pleaſures; and imagined that my health, youth, innocence, and dependent ſituation, would inſure him a diligent nurſe, rendered faithful by intereſt.

The firſt impreſſion of my new admirer was far from the moſt diſagreeable I received.—Each day diſcovered ſome freſh ſubject of diſguſt; and I ſhould have retracted my conſent to unite myſelf to him had not the idea of a nunnery bound me to my engagement. The thoughts of marrying the marquis were dreadful; but the proſpect of being buried alive in a diſmal convent was even more ſo. It would for ever preclude the poſſibility of enjoying thoſe pleaſures for which I had imbibed a reliſh; and which might certainly be within my reach when I became miſtreſs of myſelf and a fortune that could procure every thing. Theſe arguments enabled me to complete the ſacrifice I meditated. In leſs than a week every article was arranged for my marriage; and the ceremony was performed before the marquis left the chateau de Bellcour, to prepare his hotel at Paris for my reception. It was hinted to me, that

he went to diſpoſſeſs a miſtreſs diſcarded on my account. I was totally indifferent as to her diſmiſſal; I ſhould even have wiſhed her to be retained, had I thought ſhe would have divided with me an attention which I found intolerably tormenting.

Three days after my nuptials the marquis ſet off for the capital. I remained at the chateau de Bellcour; and toward the evening withdrew to my chamber to enjoy the abſence of my huſband. The air was freſh, and I had placed myſelf at the window to taſte its coolneſs, when my eyes were ſtruck by the unexpected appearance of the chevalier, handſomer, more animated, and more engaging than ever. My heart acknowledged its poſſeſſor. He approached with caution; and perceiving his arrival had not been obſerved, he beckoned me down; and pointing ſignificantly toward the trellis arbour, ſtruck into the walk leading to it, and made ſigns which I comprehended as an invitation to me to follow his ſteps: Mine bore me to him—flying over the path which conducted to the well-known ſpot, I arrived at it, and perceived him watching my coming with impatience. As I entered the arbour he caught me in his arms. The love which beamed in his eyes baniſhed all my anger and miſtruſt, I even forgot my marriage, and I permitted his endearments without remembering their impropriety.

We devoted ſome time to thoſe, without interrupting them by converſation; at length the chevalier commenced it by announcing to me that ſince his departure he had devoted himſelf to my remembrance and to the means of enſuring our happineſs. 'I felt,' continued he, 'that I had been guilty of an impropriety, and an offence againſt love, in declaring it before circumſtances authorized the tender avowal —Solely occupied by it, I was induced to forget the duty I owed my father, and the reſpect due to you and the young lady to whom I had long been affianced.—Your preſence baniſhed her ſo entirely from my thoughts, that I ceaſed to remember the contract exiſting between us. It had been formed before my heart was capable of receiving an impreſſion. Had it not been captivated by your charms, I ſhould have conſidered it a filial duty to perform the engagement of uniting myſelf to mademoiſelle de la Motteville, whoſe happineſs would have been the firſt object of a mind at liberty to devote itſelf to the duties of the ſtate I ſhould have entered without reluctance: but a ſoul impreſſed with your image felt the impoſſibility of forming a tie which would have rendered me unjuſt to mademoiſelle de la Motteville. And I felt the neceſſity of appriſing her my heart was not at my diſpoſal; and that I relinquiſhed the honour of any claims upon hers.

'My father, who had projected the intended alliance, and had long conſidered it as the means of enſuring me a powerful intereſt at court, and a fortune which would have given me a figure there, was enraged at my abandoning the bright proſpect of my advancement and future elevation: but love is blind to intereſt, and honour has preferred the misfortune of diſpleaſing a father to the immorality of becoming an indifferent huſband; which might riſk my own virtue, and the happineſs of an amiable woman, to whom I ſhould have been ſo much indebted.

'I have nothing to offer you, my charming Heloiſe, but a faithful heart; and an income as much inferior to my wiſhes as it is to your deſerts.—Do you feel that love can ſupply the deficiencies of fortune? I am incapable of the baſeneſs of ſeducing you to ſhare indigence.—My preſent commiſſion, and the hopes of riſing in the honourable profeſſion of arms, enables me to offer you a ſituation, genteel though not great; and I ſubmit my fate and ſentence to affection and prudence.'

I was ſilent:—What could I ſay? What I ought to have ſaid could not find utterance.

'Wherefore this ſilence, my be-

loved Heloiſe?' demanded the impaſſioned chevalier, 'Have you ceaſed to regard me, and yet fear to wound me? Speak—ſpeak I conjure you.—What have I to hope? What ought I to fear? A fort'night has ſcarcely elapſed ſince you permitted me to imagine I might obtain the invaluable gift of your hand.—I have haſtened to render myſelf free and at liberty to ſolicit it honourably. I have flown on the wings of love, and but this inſtant flattered myſelf I was welcomed by affection.—Here in this ſpot where I ſo lately declared my paſſion, dared to hope I now beheld the tokens of congenial ſentiment.—Why does your preſent ſilence and averted regards deſtroy the hopes our rapturous meeting nurtured and animated? Was it kind to inſpire and increaſe a love you cruelly purpoſed to deſtroy? Deſtroy it, did I ſay? Alas! no earthly power can alter an attachment too deeply rooted to be eradicated. No, Heloiſe; you may ceaſe to regard me, but I am doomed to love you till I ceaſe to exiſt.'

Moved by the tenderneſs of his manner, the affection it inſpired abandoned my ſoul to him again without reſerve.—The enraptured chevalier gave way to all the enthuſiaſm of the moſt lively paſſion, while he preſſed me to beſtow the hand on him which circumſtances had left entirely to my own diſpoſal:—'You are the ſole miſtreſs of your own fate,' cried he, 'and I make you the arbitreſs of mine.—Ah! confer on me as ſoon as poſſible a hand left at liberty.—Are you not free to diſpoſe of yourſelf? Who has a right to controul you? None can nor will dare to aſſume the power which no law either human or divine can delegate to them.'

This ſpeech awakened the full recollection of my miſerable ſituation. 'Alas! Chevalier,' I exclaimed, 'I am no longer free.'

'What do I hear?' interrupted he; what would you announce to me?'

'That I am—married!'

'Death and diſtraction!' ejaculated Chateaufort, riſing and ſtriking his forehead in a phrenzied manner.

I claſped my hands in ſilent deſpair.

'You cannot be ſerious, cried the chevalier, fixing his eyes on me as he ſtood before me.—'You are not the wife of another—it is impoſſible.—Cruel Heloiſe! to ſport with a heart that adores you!—But love will pardon you all its agonies if you will pronounce that you live for me.'

'Yes!' cried I, 'Heloiſe will live for the amiable Chateaufort.'

'And for him alone,' interrupted he with eagerneſs—'Heloiſe, I am warm—I am jealous—I can never bear a rival in your heart.'

'Fear none,' reſumed I, 'the animated heart of Heloiſe is all your own.—But, alas!—'

'Heloiſe, you are myſterious—I cannot comprehend you.—Heavens! you weep; and your tears diſtract me.'

'Wonder not that I weep at the recollection of the horrible ſacrifice which jealouſy offered three days ſince on the altar of deſpair.—The hateful remembrance makes me ſhudder.—Ah! Chateaufort;' cried I, throwing myſelf into his arms as he ſat beſide me, 'you arrive too late to ſave the wretched victim.'

'To whom, and by whom, has ſhe been ſacrificed?' demanded the chevalier eagerly, laying his hand on his ſword.—'This weapon ſhall avenge your wrongs and mine: enraged love can even dare to point it at an uncle's breaſt if he is the author of its diſappointment.'

Chateaufort's manner alarmed me. I felt the neceſſity of ſubſtituting a tenderer ſentiment than that which now governed him; and ſeizing his hand, I carried it to my boſom, and fixing my eyes on his with the ſofteſt expreſſion of love, I aſſured him I alone was the author of my irreparable miſery; and briefly recounted the various reaſons which had inſtigated me to beſtow myſelf on a hated object. My ſoft endearments had the

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effect I hoped.—Chateaufort's rage gave place to love; for ſome moments his ſoul yielded itſelf entirely to the intoxicating paſſion—and mine caught the enthuſiaſm of his. Thoſe moments, which I can never ceaſe to remember with delight, fled too rapidly. Chateaufort himſelf terminated them by demanding to whom the hand belonged which he dared to preſs to his lips.

'The marquis de Valmont,' replied I, 'has acquired rights over my perſon—but none to my heart. Heloiſe de Valence beſtowed it on the amiable Chateaufort, and the marchioneſs de Valmont has not the power of retracting the gift.'

The chevalier bowed.—'I ſhall endeavour, madam, to merit your eſteem. The object favoured with that, will take care not to forfeit the invaluable treaſure. I ſhall live devoted to your remembrance and the moſt poignant regrets. Adoration and reſpect will enſure your image in my heart. I muſt, if poſſible, ceaſe to remember Heloiſe de Valence, while I think inceſſantly of madame the marchioneſs de Valmont. Adieu! madam, adieu for ever!'

'What is your purpoſe?' demanded I, ſeizing him as he roſe to depart; 'Why do you leave me?'

'It is poſſible,' replied Chateaufort, 'that you may not feel the neceſſity of this ſeparation; but my paſſion, more violent than yours, impoſes it imperiouſly. I cannot think of beholding you devoted to another; nor could I ſee with patience your heavenly charms in the poſſeſſion of the marquis. Even the idea of your being united to a being ſo hateful, is more than I can ſupport. Good God! to think that a creature ſo angelic as you are, muſt permit ſuch a hideous monſter to approach you—a monſter devoid of ſentiment; and that your purity and innocence will be a prey to him who has ſo often deſtroyed them in others! But I forget the reſpect I owe you, madam.—Ah! I already perceive how ſoon I might forfeit your eſteem and my own.

'Adieu, madam!' He bowed and departed.

The diſtant reſpect he had aſſumed before he left me, and the reſoluteneſs with which he ſupported it, hurt my feelings and revolted my heart. Some tears and ſome ſighs ſeemed to have the power of effacing him from my affection. Every day I thought of him; every object awakened his idea, but I remembered him with reſentment rather than love.

[To be concluded in our next.]

NATURAL HISTORY OF THE JAY.

With an Engraving of that BIRD, *beautifully coloured from Nature.*

THE bird commonly known in Britain by the name of the Jay, has received, in the ſyſtem of Linneus, the appellation of *Corvus Glandarius*. Its German name is *Holtzheber*. Its ancient Britiſh denomination is, according to Mr. Pennant, *Screech y Coed*.

The feathers on its head are long. Its forehead is ſtreaked with white. Its head, ſides, neck, breaſt, and back, are of a venaceous buff colour. The coverts of the wings exhibit a beautiful chequering of blue and black. Its rump is white. The colour of the tail is a blackiſh brown.

It builds its neſt in hazels, thorns, and low birches. The uſual number of the eggs on which it broods in the neſt, is five or ſix. The period of incubation does not exceed fourteen days. The young continue under the care of their parents till the next ſpring after the time of their production.

In ſummer, theſe birds live upon fruits. Their favourite food is then of peaſe, cherries, gooſeberries, raſpberries, &c. Acorns are their chief ſuſtenance in autumn and winter. They occaſionally devour worms and inſects of different ſorts. And they have even in their character ſo much

of the bird of prey, as to live often by the deſtruction of ſmall birds, &c.

This ſpecies are common throughout Europe, in Siberia, and in other parts of the world. They are one of the moſt beautiful indigenous to Britain. In the Scottiſh Iſles they are not found. They are reſtleſs and quarrelſome. Their voices are harſh and ſcreaming, and they chatter inceſſantly. The male is in ſize ſomewhat larger than the female, and has the colours of its feathers more elegant.

The jay is often domeſticated; and is capable of learning to imitate the ſounds of the human voice. In confinement, it loſes that beauty of colouring for which the wild jay is ſo deſervedly admired. Hence aroſe among the ancients an error or fiction, that the jay in its wild ſtate uſed to appear in borrowed feathers. One of the moſt beautiful fables of Phædrus is founded on that fiction.

In Spain and Sweden, though not in Britain, the carcaſe of the jay is dreſſed for the table.

SPECIMENS OF THE STATE OF THE ARTS IN FRANCE.

ACCORDING to the preſent ſubdiviſion of the year in France, there are at its end five intercalary or complementary days, the firſt of which correſponds to our 18th day of September. Thoſe days are appropriated by the government, among other things, to an exhibition of articles of French produce in all the arts of manufacture. No ſpecimen is thus admitted, which has not been previouſly approved as worthy by a jury of the department in which the ſpecimen was made. A national jury is appointed by the miniſter for internal affairs, to decide on the comparative merits of the objects actually admitted into the exhibition. Medals of gold and ſilver are diſtributed to thoſe whom the national jury determines to have adorned the exhibition with the beſt ſpecimens. Beſides, it generally happens that the exhibitors ſell the articles which they produce in the exhibition with great profit to perſons who have opportunity there to inſpect them. We ſhall enumerate a few of the articles, which have been admitted into the laſt exhibition. Our deſign in doing this, is to render the manufacturers and artiſts of this country duly aware, with what zeal and induſtry the French now labour to excel them in their reſpective arts, and thus to gain the preference over them in the markets.

From the department of the lower Meuſe, meſſrs. Clermont, of the town of Vaels, have ſent three cuts of fine broad cloth, made of Spaniſh wool, the quality of which appears to be admirable. Thoſe gentlemen are already famous for their manufacture of fine woollen goods, of which they are accuſtomed to export largely to Ruſſia, Pruſſia, Portugal and Poland.

Mr. Vanhoof of Moll, in the department des Deux Nethes, has ſent a piece of blue cloth, ſuch as is uſed in clothing the troops, of extraordinary ſtoutneſs of texture, and wonderfully low in price.

At Carcaſſonne in the *department De l'Aude*, are woollen manufactures, which work chiefly for the Levant market. Of theſe Mr. Thoron-Paſcal has ſent ſeveral ſpecimens, under the names of *Firſt Londrins*, *Second Londrins*, and *Mabouts*, which both in price and quality are thought fit to obtain a preference over our Engliſh goods in the markets to which they are ſent. Paſcal makes a particular ſort of theſe goods, which are known, and very eagerly bought in the countries of the Turkiſh empire, by the name of Paſcals. Before the revolution, the manufacturers of Carcaſſonne had conſiderably hurt the reputation of their goods in the Levant market by the knaviſh ſlightneſs of the texture, and the frauds with which they uſed to make up orders. It is their preſent ambition to efface that imputation.

Mr. Charles Pictet of the depart-

ment du Leman, and of the city of Geneva, has ſent a piece of flannel, made of the coarſer parts of ſome wool of Merino ſheep. The ſame gentleman obtained laſt year a ſilver medal for ſome beautiful woollen ſhawls, which he ſent to the exhibition.

From Mazamet and Caſtres, in the department of Tarn, have been ſent a variety of ſpecimens of woollen goods, the manufactures of meſſrs. Olombel and of Mr. Guibal.

Mr. Laurence Duſard of Malines, in the department des Deux Nethes, has ſent a hat made of the down of hare-ſkin, without any intermixture of beaver-down, which is uncommonly fine, firm, and beautiful, and which he can afford to ſell for the moderate price of ſixteen ſhillings and eight pence.

Meſſrs. Maſſon and Devilaire, cotton-ſpinners and dyers at Roanne, in the department of La Loire, have ſent ſpecimens of cotton yarn, both white and dyed, which are thought to be uncommonly excellent. The cotton-works at Roanne were much hurt by the troubles of the revolution. But they have weathered the ſtorm, and are now riſing faſt to a ſtate of the higheſt proſperity.

From Oleron, in the department des Baſſes Pyrenees, have been ſent ſpecimens of cotton yarn and cotton handkerchiefs, the manufacture of M. Lamargue, which are eſteemed very favourable ſamples of French proficiency in the cotton manufacture.

Some good cotton ſtockings have been ſent from the manufactures of Godard and of Larret-Becu at Arras, in the *Pas-de-Calais*; and ſome fine ſpecimens of cotton yarn from the ſame place.

John Richard Troſtorff of Vaels, in the department of the Lower Meuſe, has ſent ſome ſpecimens of needles. The manufacture in which theſe were made was before the war in a very flouriſhing ſtate. It employs at preſent 150 hands, who make annually twenty-five millions of needles, moſt of which are ſold in Germany.

From Turnhont, in the department des Deux Nethes, C. J. Deviſſer has ſent two pieces of ticking of excellent quality.

From the department de La Loire, Thomas Cadet, armourer of St. Etienne, has ſent ſeveral double-barrelled guns, &c. Girin Plotton of the ſame department, has ſent a variety of locks. Mr. Girard ſends different articles of hardware. Peyret Potton ſends a parcel of knives, and another of forks. A variety of ſaws and other joiner's tools, are ſent by meſſrs. Jourjon of St. Etienne.

From the department of the Moſelle, a variety of inſtruments of ſteel of cementation, and bars of that ſteel, have been ſent by different perſons. The ſteel from the forges of Monterpauſen, is eſteemed by thoſe who have ſkilfully examined it, to be of middle quality, between the Styrian and Engliſh ſteel. It is not ſuſceptible of that fine poliſh which Engliſh ſteel takes. But its price is conſiderably cheaper.

Meſſrs. Zeiler, Weiller, and company, have ſent from their glaſs-works, in the ſame department, ſeven dozens of glaſs goblets, with a diverſity of cryſtal vaſes.

Mr. Walter of the glaſs works of Gotzeinbruck, in the ſame department, has ſent a number of caraffs, vaſes, and common glaſſes of the Engliſh faſhion.

Mr. Paul Ultzſchneida has ſent a variety of diſhes of cream-coloured earthen-ware.

Mr. Hener, of Nancy, has ſent alſo tereens, plates, and other vaſes of earthen-ware, of very beautiful manufacture.

Frederick Japy, of Beaucourt, in the department of the Upper Rhine, ſends twelve dozens of watch ſprings, of different ſorts, from twenty five ſhillings to fifty ſhillings each in price. The inſtruments he uſes in this manufacture are of his own invention, and are wrought by children, old men, and others unfit for other ſorts

of labour. In his workſhops he employs more than three hundred hands conſtantly. Every eight days, theſe make three hundred of the ſprings. Mr. Japy, with the aſſiſtance of his ſixteen children, hopes ſoon to be able to ſupply a great part of Europe with this article.

Theſe are ſome of the principal ſpecimens ſhown at the exhibition at Paris, which ended on the 22d of September, the laſt day of the tenth year of the French republic. That exhibition could ſhow nothing very formidably rivalling the manufactures of Britain and Ireland. Yet it is to be wiſhed that we had ſome ſuch national exhibition in London.

REMARKS ON THE TARANTULA.

[From 'Stolberg's Travels through Germany, Switzerland, Italy, and Sicily.']

I have been able to obtain no ſatisfactory account of that kind of venomous ſpider, which, after this town [Tarento] has been called Tarantula. It has been aſſerted of the tarantula, that its venomous bite inſpires a deep melancholy, which frequently ends in death, and can only be cured by violent dancing. Neither will the ſick perſon dance till the muſician has happened upon the air that pleaſes him, and the ſame air will not produce the ſame effect on all patients.

The reaſons which have long been alleged, in oppoſition to this ſtory, appear to me very ſtrong, if not unanſwerable. It is firſt ſtated, that the ancients ſay nothing of this dance; and next, this practice is confined to Puglia, although the tarantula is likewiſe found in Sicily, at Rome, at Tivoli, and in many parts of Italy, as well as in Puglia. If the heat of Puglia render the bite of the tarantula particularly dangerous, muſt not the heat of the ſouth of Sicily do the ſame? Why ſhould the bite be ſo dangerous at Tarento, where the air is ſo mild? Ought we not to aſcribe the danger, and the effect produced by dancing, to the lively imagination of the Tarentines, or rather of the Tarentine women.

In the third place, the bite is ſaid only to be dangerous in the hot months; though I hear theſe dancers are exhibited for money at the beginning of May. To this it may be anſwered, that having been cured by dancing, whenever they hear the ſame muſic played again, the livelineſs of their imagination once more makes them begin to dance with violence, and even with convulſions. But is it not highly probable that there is often knavery at the bottom?

Beſides, the imagination, to which we are indebted for ſo much good and evil, acting upon the inhabitants of Italy, over whom it is ſo powerful, may here double its effects. The perſuaſion that the bite of the tarantula excites melancholy may, in thoſe who have been bitten, be actually productive of melancholy; and the perſuaſion likewiſe that dancing will cure them, may as readily excite them to dance, and as effectually afford them relief.

I have ſeen a living tarantula. It was grey on the back, and white on the belly, with clear brown ſpots. It had not attained its full growth. In the middle of ſummer, it is as large as the largeſt ſpiders. At this time the back becomes black, and even the ſpots on the belly of the ſame colour.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DEI CENTO CAVALLI.

[From the SAME.]

THIS tree, which for centuries has been hollow, conſiſts at preſent of five prodigious trees, ſeveral of the inward ſides of which are ſmooth, though time has covered them with a kind of bark, and which we indubitably ſee all actually belong to one great trunk, through which wide cavities have

been made by the decay which time produces. They ſtand in a circle, and form a vaſt connected bower, denoting the natural rounding of the tree, which has only been perforated by a ſucceſſion of centuries.

Swinburne, a traveller of underſtanding and veracity, ſays: 'When I firſt ſaw this tree, I concluded myſelf impoſed upon by the deſcriptions of preceding travellers, and was convinced that the original tree had been cut down, and the preſent group formed by new ſhoots ſprung out of the old root; but upon a cloſer examination I changed my opinion. This wonderful production of the vegetable kingdom conſiſts of a trunk now ſplit to the ſurface of the earth, but, as I found by digging all round, united in one body at a very ſmall depth below.

We meaſured the circumference of this tree, and found it to be twenty-five *canne* and ſix *palmi*, or one hundred and ſixty-two French feet, *pied de roi*, which is ſomething larger than the Rheniſh foot. A *canna* contains eight *palms*, the *palm* a *ſpan*, including the firſt joint of the thumb.

We and our whole eſcort, mules and all, found more than ſufficient room within this tree; nor were we incommoded by the remains of a ſtone houſe and oven, which had been built there; and you will eaſily perceive, from its circumference, that the name *Dei cento cavalli* is no exaggeration. Huge branches ſpread from its principal trunks on all ſides; and the vigorous vegetation of its green old age increaſes the admiration which its aſpect excites, eſpecially having ſuffered, as it has done, from the ravages of time, in deſpite of which its venerable ruins rather reſemble a grove than a tree. View it on which ſide you will, its appearance is as beautiful as it is unique.

ACCOUNT OF THE AYA PANA.

[Read at the National Inſtitute of France, by Mr. Ventenat, Sept. 1, 1802.]

THE Aya Pana grows in South America, on the right bank of the river of the Amazons. It is eſteemed by the native inhabitants of that country, as an excellent ſudorific, and as a potent antidote againſt poiſon from the bites of ſerpents, or from poiſoned arrows. In Brazil, its virtues are equally recogniſed; it has the name of the miraculous plant, and is cultivated with the greateſt care.

In the year 1799, captain Auguſtin Baudin (brother to that captain Baudin to whom natural hiſtory has ſo many obligations, and who is now exploring the iſles of the South Sea) happening to be in Brazil, heard ſome verbal accounts of the Aya Pana: the ſtory of its virtues ſeemed, at firſt, to be wholly fabulous, or at leaſt very much exaggerated above the truth. But his doubts were at length removed by the teſtimony of ſeveral perſons of unqueſtionable veracity reſpecting the cures effected by this plant, and by the authority in particular of Dr. Camara, a pupil of our colleague Juſſieu, and a gentleman of the greateſt eminence in the knowledge of botany and the practice of medicine.

Thus, convinced that it would be highly uſeful to the French colonies, captain Baudin, though not without much difficulty, procured a few plants of this ſpecies, which he ſent on board his ſhip, with ſtrict orders that the greateſt care ſhould be taken of them. At his departure from Brazil, he went to ſee in what ſtate his aya pana plants remained. But they were gone. The fowls had got out of their coops, and devoured them.

Captain Baudin was extremely concerned for the loſs. And, though he was to ſail next day, he reſolved to procure, at whatever expence, ſome new ſpecimens of the aya pana. He applied to ſeveral of the inhabitants on ſhore; but they refuſed his requeſts, and rejected his offers. Love of ſcience, and the deſire to do a ſer-

vice to his country, then moved him to overlook conſiderations to which, on any other occaſion, he would have paid inviolable reſpect. He recollected an aya pana plant in a perſon's window, who had denied it to all his ſolicitations. That plant he determined to carry off by ſtealth at night. Some of his ſailors went on ſhore with him. They reached with long poles up to the window, and pulled down the vaſe in which the plant grew. The captain took it up, returned with it on board his ſhip, and inſtantly ſailed for the Iſle of France.

On his arrival, he carried it to the public garden. It grows readily from the ſlip, and hence it has been already propagated with ſuch ſucceſs, that there is now ſcarce a dwelling-houſe in all that Iſle, without one or more of theſe plants.

By the accounts communicated to me from the Iſle of France, and by thoſe which have been ſince tranſmitted to madame Bonaparte, and to Mr. Juſſieu by captain Auguſtin Baudin himſelf, it appears that the aya pana there exhibits the ſame valuable qualities, as in its native ſoil. The ſick crowd to the public garden to aſk for their cure, a few of the leaves of this plant. New inſtances of its remedial powers are daily made public in the colonial gazettes. It is found to be a moſt ſucceſsful ſpecific not only for the bites of poiſonous reptiles, but alſo for the dropſy, for the moſt inveterate venereal complaints, and for all ſorts of wounds

I ſhall mention three or four of the caſes in which cures have been effected by the aya pana in the Iſle of France.

Mr. Cotte, a planter in that iſle, was ſtung in the hand by a ſcorpion. Inflammation of the part, with acute pains, enſued. Captain Baudin adviſed him to try the aya pana. A few leaves of this plant were bruiſed and put upon the wound. The pain ceaſed inſtantly; the inflammation was removed within two hours: and the hand, of courſe, recovered its natural condition.

Mr. Poncet, an officer of artillery, brought to captain Baudin a negro who, in fiſhing, had been wounded by a fiſh, known in that country by the name of Laſt. Its poiſon is ſo fatally powerful, that the only remedy hitherto known for it, was the inſtant amputation of the wounded member. The negro's hand was exceſſively ſwollen. Captain Baudin recommended the aya pana: A perſon was ſent to the public garden, to procure ſuch a quantity of the leaves, that the hand might be wrapped entirely up in them. In thu mean time, however, as the garden was ten miles diſtant, the captain applied ſeven or eight leaves from a young plant then in his own poſſeſſion. Theſe were bruiſed and laid upon the wound: next day the negro's hand was perfectly healed.

A negro whoſe body was ſwollen, as it appeared, with a dropſy, was brought to a ſurgeon. After an examination of his caſe, the ſurgeon conceived that nothing could be done for him otherwiſe than by tapping. Having other patients to viſit, he had not then time to perform the operation: but, as the ſlave's maſter was urgent that he ſhould preſcribe ſomething to be done or taken immediately; 'Till I return,' ſaid the ſurgeon, 'let him drink an infuſion of aya pana.' Theſe orders were exactly obeyed. And the conſequences were, that the dropſy ceaſed to make further progreſs, the ſymptoms gradually diſappeared, and within a few days, the negro was able to return to his work.

Captain Baudin, in going on board his ſhip, had a fall by which his left leg was conſiderably hurt. He ordered a quantity of the leaves of the aya pana to be immediately boiled. He then waſhed his wounds with the warm decoction, and laid the leaves upon his ſores. His leg was then wrapped up in a bandage wetted with the liquor, and was every ten minutes moiſtened with it anew. Within two hours from the time when the decoction had been firſt applied, the inflammation had ſubſided, ſo that captain Baudin was able to walk with a ſtaff.

In the ſpace of thirteen days his wounds were entirely healed.

I might mention many other cures effected by the uſe of this famous plant from Brazil; but the enquiries and experiments of phyſicians will, in due time, fully illuſtrate all its virtues. The teſtimony of captain Baudin, and of other perſons from the Iſle of France, affords us, for the preſent, great reaſon to expect that the aya pana may increaſe the number of thoſe plants which we find of uſe to relieve the woes of ſuffering humanity.

It is to be expected, that the plants of the aya pana will be ſpeedily multiplied in the gardens of Paris. Mr. Michaux ſo eminently the benefactor of botany and agriculture, has ſent ſome of its ſeeds to madame Bonaparte and to Mr. Cels. But it does not always ſpring from the ſeeds. And it were, therefore, to be wiſhed that we could procure ſome of the living plants, from the cuttings of which it might be eaſily propagated in this country.

The botanical characters of this plant are eaſily diſtinguiſhed. It is corymbiferous; and congeneric with the Eupatorium of Linnæus. Its ſtem is ſtraight; bearing many branches; of a dark brown colour; riſing in height to nearly forty Engliſh inches; of about the thickneſs of a common quill. Its leaves are alternate, nearly ſeſſile, lanceolated, and unbroken at the edges. Its flowers are of a lively purple colour, and are diſpoſed in corymbi, at the top of the ſtem, and the ends of the branches. I ſhould name it the *Eupatorium Ana Pana*, and deſcribe it *Eupatorium foliis lanceolatis, integerrimis, inferioribus oppoſitis, ſuperioribus alternis, calycibus ſub ſimplicibus multifloris.*

P. S. Having received a quantity of the leaves from madame Bonaparte; I have given them to Dr. Alibert, phyſician to the hoſpital of St. Louis, and profeſſor in Materia Medica, for his particular examination of their medicinal qualities.

MANUFACTURE OF KNIVES AT THIERS IN FRANCE.

THE ſubdiviſion of labour in this manufacture is highly remarkable. 1. The iron in bars is ſubjected to the action of great hammers, moved by the force of water, which reduce the bars to the requiſite breadth and thickneſs. 2. The blackſmith at the forge then cuts out and faſhions the blade. 3. In the mean time, another workman prepares the hold of iron in which the blade is to be fixed. 4. Another makes the ſpring. 5. A different perſon prepares the handle. 6. A woman forms the ornaments, which are to appear where the nails faſten the pieces of the handle together. 7. The rough unpoliſhed blade is put into the hands of a workman, whoſe buſineſs is to file it down. 8. From him it is transferred to another, who poliſhes it and ſharpens it to the proper delicacy of edge. 9. Laſtly, Another perſon takes all theſe different pieces, and puts them together in a knife. Each of theſe nine different perſons confines himſelf for life to his own branch of the work. The whole number of inhabitants in the town is but 15,000; and of theſe 10,000 are thus employed in the manufacture of cutlery. The peaſantry of the environs, to the diſtance of ſome miles all around, follow the ſame occupation. And in this ſmall and infertile diſtrict, there are probably not fewer than 20,000 perſons, who earn their ſubſiſtence by making knives and ſciſſars. This is in fact the Sheffield of France. Much of its wares is exported to Spain, Mexico, Peru, Buenos-Ayres, to the emporia of the Levant, and to the Eaſt and Weſt Indies. The knives of Thiers are ſold by the manufacturers at three ſhillings and four-pence ſterling a groſs, conſiſting of twelve dozen; the ſciſſars at five ſhillings ſterling per groſs. Even the deareſt are not retailed at more than ten-pence a piece. Yet the quantity annually ſold is in value equal to 70,833l 6s 8d ſterling.

EXTRACTS *from* DENON'S TRAVELS *in* Upper *and* Lower EGYPT, *during the Campaigns of General* BONAPARTE.

The French, in their attempt to eſtabliſh a Colony in Egypt, employed various means to explore, with philoſophical and learned inveſtigation, the preſent ſtate of that country, and thoſe fragments of works of ancient Art which it ſtill contains. Since they were expelled from that conqueſt by the more fortunate and more heroic arms of the Engliſh, they have endeavoured to perpetuate the memory of their expedition by publiſhing accounts of their Egyptian diſcoveries. None of their publications on theſe ſubjects equal the ſplendour of the work of Vivant Denon. *We are, therefore, induced to extract, for the entertainment of our readers, ſome of the moſt curious and original articles of information, which* Denon's *publication exhibits.*

CRUELTY OF A JEALOUS EGYPTIAN.

ON the ſecond day of the march of the troops acroſs the deſert, from Alexandria, they met, near Beda, a young woman, whoſe face was ſmeared with blood. In one hand, ſhe held a young infant, and with her other was vacantly ſtretched out to the object that might ſtrike or guide it. Their curioſity was excited. They called their guide, who was at the ſame time their interpreter. They approached; and they heard the ſighs of a being from whom the organs of tears had been torn away! Aſtoniſhed, and deſirous of an explanation, they queſtioned her. They learned that the dreadful ſpectacle before their eyes had been produced by a fit of jealouſy. Its victim preſumed to utter no murmurs, but only prayers in behalf of the innocent who partook her misfortune, and which was on the point of periſhing with miſery and hunger. The ſoldiers, ſtruck with compaſſion, and forgetting their own wants in the preſence of the more preſſing ones of others, immediately gave her a part of their rations. They were beſtowing part of the precious water with which they were threatened to be ſoon wholly without themſelves, when they beheld the furious huſband approach, who, feaſting his eyes at a diſtance with the fruits of his vengeance, had kept its victims in ſight. He ſprang forward, ſnatched from the woman's hands the bread, the water (that laſt neceſſary of life!) which pity had given to misfortune: 'Stop!' cried he: 'ſhe has loſt her honour, ſhe has wounded mine; this child is my ſhame, it is the ſon of guilt!' The ſoldiers reſiſted his attempt to deprive the woman of the food they had given her. His jealouſy was irritated at ſeeing the object of his fury become that of the kindneſs of others. He drew a dagger, and gave the woman a mortal blow; then ſeized the child, threw it into the air, and deſtroyed it by its fall: afterward, with ſtupid ferocity, he ſtood motionleſs, looking ſtedfaſtly at thoſe who ſurrounded him, and defying their vengeance.

BANQUET AT THE HOUSE OF A MAMLUK.

A LARGE houſe, which had almoſt always belonged to a mamluk formerly lord and maſter of the village, was ſuddenly furniſhed, according to the cuſtom of the country, with mats, carpets, and cuſhions. A banquent commenced by the entrance of a number of ſervants, bringing cold and perfumed water, pipes, and coffee; half an hour afterward, a carpet was ſpread, round which was formed a border of three or four kinds of loaves and cakes, while the center was covered with little plates of fruits, ſweetmeats, creams, and other pro-

ductions of the dairy, of which the greater part were exceedingly agreeable, and in particular, highly perfumed. All this ſeemed to be but taſted, for in a few minutes the repaſt was finiſhed; but, at the end of two hours more, the ſame carpet was covered again; other loaves were brought and immenſe diſhes of rice, dreſſed with freſh beef and with milk, half-ſheep, badly roaſted, large quarters of veal, boiled heads of ſheep and calves, and ſixty other diſhes piled upon one another, and containing ſpiced ragouts, vegetables, jellies, confectionaries, and honey from the hive. Here were no chairs, no plates, no ſpoons or forks, no goblets or napkins. Squatted on their heels, with their knees bent toward their breaſts, the company helped themſelves to rice with their fingers, and divided the meat with their nails. They dipped the bread in the ragouts, and they uſed it to wipe their hands and mouths. They drank water from one pot. He that did the honours of the feaſt always drank firſt. He, alſo, taſted firſt of every diſh; and this leſs to ſhow that his gueſts need not entertain any ſuſpicions, than to teſtify how careful he was of their ſafety, and what attention he paid to their perſons. Napkins were not preſented till after dinner, when water was brought to waſh hands. After this, roſe-water was ſprinkled on every perſon preſent. The whole concluded with pipes and coffee.

When the French had eaten, people of ſecondary rank came in, and ſupplied their places, and were themſelves very quickly relieved by others: on a principle of religion, a poor beggar was next admitted; then came the ſervants, and then every one who would, till all was ate. If there was wanting to this dinner that convenience and elegance which would have given it zeſt to an European, it was impoſſible not to admire the plenty, the hoſpitable profuſion, and at the ſame time the moderation of the gueſts, whom the number of diſhes never kept above ten minutes at table.

COLOSSAL RUINS.

AFTER three quarters of an hour's march, Denon diſcovered, at the bottom of the bay, a little jut into the ſea, compoſed of coloſſal ruins. With extraordinary pleaſure, he inſtantly perceived a fragment of a hand, of which the firſt finger, fourteen inches in length, belonged to a ſtatue of thirty-ſix feet in height. The granite, the workmanſhip, and the ſtyle of this morſel, left him no doubt that it was a remain of the remoteſt ages of Egyptian hiſtory. By the attitude of this hand, by the fragments which lay near it, and by the mere habit of ſeeing Egyptian figures, of which the deſign has little variety, he felt himſelf authoriſed to conclude that it had belonged to an Iſis, holding a nilometer: it might have been eaſily brought away; but the change of place would have taken away almoſt all its value. Near this, ſeveral architectural members atteſted by their dimenſions that they had belonged to a large and beautiful edifice of the doric order. The waves have covered and raged againſt theſe ruins for many ages, but they are ſtill undefaced. More advanced into the ſea, may be obſerved, among the fragments of the coloſſus, thoſe of a ſphinx, of which, as far as the madrepores and ſhell fiſh would permit a clear diſcernment, the head and fore legs are ſeparated from the trunk. It is of the ſtyle and chiſel of the Greeks; and the material is not granite, but a free-ſtone, reſembling white marble, and of a tranſparency which M. Denon had never ſeen in this ſubſtance in any other country than Egypt. Its proportions ſhowed it to have been from thirty to forty feet in length. At a further diſtance, among architectural ruins, reſembling thoſe already mentioned, there is another figure of Iſis, ſufficiently perfect to ſhow the attitude in which it ſtood. Its legs are broke, but the pieces lie at its ſide. This figure is in granite, and of the height of ten feet. This aſſemblage of fragments appear to have been thrown into the ſea, in order to form

a pier, for the preſervation of an edifice now deſtroyed, but which, judging, from the traces it has left, muſt have been a bath, the ground-plan of which is cut in the rock. The parts which the ſea does not cover, ſerve to protect ſome heads of water, which are built round with brick.

At ſomething ſhort of a mile from this ſpot, returning inland, and drawing toward Alexandria, ſeveral foundations of brick are diſcovered; and though the plan cannot be made out, ſome fragments of very elaborate workmanſhip give reaſon to conclude, that they have made parts of important buildings. Near theſe, are found many Corinthian capitals, in marble, too much worn to be meaſured, but which muſt have belonged to baſes of the ſame material, and ſhafts of apparently twenty inches diameter. Further on, a conſiderable number of fluted ſhafts of roſe-coloured granite, all of the ſame proportions and material, and laboured with the ſame care, are indubitable ruins of a large and ſuperb temple of the doric order. According to all that has been tranſmitted by Strabo, concerning this part of Egypt, according to all that M. Denon had juſt ſeen and, as above, deſcribed, and eſpecially the preſent fragments, he was convinced beyond a doubt, that theſe were the ruins of Canopus, and of its temple, built by the Greeks, of which the rites rivalled thoſe of Lampſacus: that miraculous temple in which the old recovered their youth, and the ſick their health. The bath adjoining was probably one of the means employed by the prieſts for the performance of theſe prodigies.

CELEBRATION OF THE ANNIVERSARY OF THE BIRTH OF MAHOMET.

THE anniverſary of the birth of Mohammed arrived. The French remarked that no preparations were made for celebrating this the moſt ſolemn feſtival of the hegirian year. Toward evening, general Menou ſent for the mufti, both whoſe dignities and whoſe emoluments had been increaſed by the arrival of the army. It was found that this man had ſeized the opportunity of repreſenting the French to the people as averſe to the ceremonies of religion, inſinuating that they had forbidden the rejoicings of the day. On his being deſired to proclaim them immediately, he ſaid the time was now too ſhort for the preparations; but being anſwered in the oriental ſtyle, that if the time was too ſhort to make preparations, it was yet long enough to put the mufti in irons, the feſtival was proclaimed within a quarter of an hour, the town was illuminated, and the ſongs of devotion were united with thoſe of joy and gratitude.

After ſupper, the French were invited to the reſidence of the principal civil magiſtrate, whom they found in the complete apparel of a Turkiſh feſtival. The ſtreet was the aſſembly room, which admitted of being lengthened or contracted according to the number of aſſiſtants. An alcove, covered with carpets, was occupied by perſons of diſtinction. Bonfires, with little lamps, and large torches, compoſed an illumination. On one ſide was warlike muſic, produced by ſmall, ſhort, and ſhrill hautboys, ſmall kettle-drums, and large albaneſe tambourines; on the other, fingers and violins, and in the midſt, Grecian dancers, and waiters with ſweetmeats, coffee, ſyrups, roſe-water, and pipes.

As ſoon as the French were ſeated, the warlike muſic commenced. A ſort of coryphæus, or leader of the band, ſung two words, which the chorus repeated in uniſon; but, whether it was the fault of the movement itſelf, or of the manner of performing it, the ſecond meaſure immediately became a cacophony, as diſagreeable to European ears as it was enchanting to Arabian. It was remarkable, that the coryphæus, with the energy and enthuſiaſm of an improviſator, repeatedly took up again the ſame notes; and, when his nerves ſeemed no longer able to ſuſtain the fire he

wiſhed to diſplay, the chorus came to his aſſiſtance, and always with the ſame diſſonance: the violins, with more harmony, then played the burdens, in which a little melody was loſt amid ſuperfluous ornament; and now the naſal voice of the inſpired ſinger returned to increaſe the faſtidious effeminacy of the ſemitones of the violin, which, conſtantly avoiding the key of the tune, went into the tenor, and always ended with the treble, in the manner of the ſeguidillas of the Spaniards; a circumſtance which proves that the ſtay of the Arabs in Spain naturalized this ſpecies of muſic in that country: after the couplet, the violin reſumed the ſame time, with new variations, which the ſinger again diſguiſed by an affected movement, ſo as wholly to loſe it, and run into a mere delirium of expreſſion, deſtitute of principle and meaſure: but by this very means, he raviſhed his auditors, and, at every return, wound up their ecſtaſy to a higher pitch. The dance which followed was of the ſame nature with the ſong; it repreſented neither joy nor gayety, but a voluptuouſneſs that ſoon became laſcivious; and this ſo much the more diſguſting, as the actors, all of whom were maſculine, expreſſed, in the moſt indecent manner, ſcenes which love itſelf allows only beneath the ſhades of myſtery.

CHARACTERISTIC DISTINCTIONS IN THE FEATURES OF THE COPTS, TURKS, GREEKS, &c.

M. DENON, obliged to confine his obſervations to objects immediately around him, noticed the facility with which, amid the variety of figures, the ſeveral races of people which inhabited Raſhid [Roſetta] might be diſtinguiſhed from each other. He concluded that this town, a ſtaple of commerce, muſt neceſſarily be a point of union between all the nations which are ſpread over the ſoil of Egypt, and muſt preſerve them with more diſtinctneſs, and more originality of character than a large city, like Kaira, where they are mixed and corrupted by the relaxation of manners. He believed that he clearly recognized in the Copt, the old Egyptian ſtock, a ſort of tawny Nubian, reſembling the ancient ſculpture of the country, with a flat face, and hair half woolly, eyes half open, and turned upward at the angles, high cheeks, a noſe rather ſhort than flat, a wide and flat mouth, at a diſtance from the noſe, and bordered with large lips, a beard ſhort and ſcanty, little grace in the perſon, bowed legs, without a flowing contour, and toes and fingers long and flat. He drew the heads of ſeveral of this race; among others, one of a drunken and ignorant prieſt, and another of an adroit acute ſubtle calculator. Theſe are the moral qualities, he adds, which diſtinguiſh theſe earlier maſters of Egypt. The firſt epoch of their degradation may be aſſigned to the conqueſt of Cambyſes, who, a jealous and furious victor, governed by terror, changed the laws, perſecuted the religious rites, mutilated what he could not deſtroy; and who, to enforce its obedience, debaſed his conqueſt. The ſecond epoch was that of the perſecution under Diocletian, when Egypt had received the Chriſtian faith; this perſecution, which the Egyptians met with martyrdom, naturally prepared the way to their ſubjugation by the mohammedans. Under the latter government, they were transformed into courtiers and agents of beys and kiaſheſs. In this capacity, they rob their maſters daily; but in doing ſo, they, in a meaſure, only reimburſe themſelves, ſince an act of oppreſſion on the other part, takes from them in groſs all that they have amaſſed in detail. To counteract this, they employ more art in concealing what they have acquired, than impudence in the acquiſition.

After the Copts come the Arabs, the moſt numerous of the inhabitants of modern Egypt. Without having the moſt influence for their importance, they ſeem to be placed in Egypt to people the country, to cultivate the

ground, to guard the flocks, to be its animals themſelves: nevertheleſs, they are full of fire and expreſſion. Their eyes, ſunk and almoſt hid, gliſten with activity and character; all their lines are angular; their beard ſhort, with pointed locks; their lips ſmall, open, and diſcovering fine teeth; their arms muſcular; and all the reſt more agile than beautiful, more nervous then well proportioned. It is in the fields, and ſtill more in the Arabs of the deſert, that theſe characteriſtic traits may be moſt decidedly perceived. Three very different claſſes of Arabs, however, muſt be diſtinguiſhed: the paſtor, or ſhepherd, who appears to be the original ſtock, and in whom the traits that have juſt been deſcribed are ſeen; the beduin, or wanderer, on whom the ſtate of warfare and lofty dependence in which he lives, beſtows a wild haughtineſs of character; and the cultivator, or huſbandman, the moſt civilized, the moſt corrupted, the moſt ſubjugated, in conſequence the moſt debaſed, the moſt varied in form and character, of the three; as may be ſeen in the ſhechs, or chiefs of villages, the fellahs, or farmers, the fakirs, or beggars, and, to conclude, in the manufacturers, who form the moſt abject claſs of the whole.

The Turks have beauties of a graver expreſſion, united with forms of a ſofter contour. Their thick eyelids leave leſs expreſſion in their eyes; their noſes are leſs acute, they have beautiful mouths and lips, long buſhy beards, a leſs tawny complexion, and ſhort necks. Their whole appearance is grave and dull; there is throughout a heavineſs, which they conſider noble, and which gives them an air of patronage, in ſpite of the nullity of their power: to ſpeak like an artiſt, nothing can be made of their beauty, but the beauty of a Turk.

It is not the ſame with the Greeks, who muſt already be reckoned among the ſtrangers that form a ſort of body ſeparate from the aborigines: their fine projections, their eyes full of acuteneſs and intelligence, the delicacy and pliancy of their traits and of their character, recals all that imagination can figure of their anceſtors, and all that their monuments have tranſmitted of their elegance and taſte. The abject condition to which they are reduced, on account of that fear which the ſuperiority of their minds ſtill inſpires, has filled many of them with crafty roguery; but reſtored to themſelves, they would probably ſoon become, as formerly, only ſkilfully ambitious. This is the nation of all others the moſt deſirous of a revolution, come from what quarter it might. During the ceremony of taking poſſeſſion of Raſhid, a young Greek approached M. Denon, kiſſed his ſhoulder, and with his finger on his lips, and without venturing to utter a word, clandeſtinely gave him a bunch of flowers, which he had bought for that purpoſe; an action which ſeem to develope all his ſenſations, his political opinions, his fears, and his hopes.

After theſe, come the Jews, who, in Egypt, as every where elſe, are hated without being feared, deſpiſed and repulſed without ever being driven away. Whether or not it be attributed to the proximity of Egypt to their own country, the fact is that their phyſical character is more ſtrikingly preſerved there than any where elſe: thoſe which are plain in features reſemble the Jews of Europe; while the handſome and particularly the young, reſemble the head which painting has preſerved as that of Jeſus. In the great cities of Egypt, the Jews are the rivals of the Copts, as placemen in the cuſtoms, intendants of pecuniary concerns, and in ſhort in every thing belonging to calculation, and capable of giving the means of accumulating and concealing a fortune.

Another race of men, conſiſting of numerous individuals, is marked by very characteriſtic traits; and this is the people of Barabra, natives of the upper country, or Nubia, and the frontiers of the Habbeſh, or Abyſſinia. In theſe burning climates, frugal na-

ture has beſtowed nothing ſuperfluous. The Barabrans have neither fat nor fleſh; nothing but nerves, muſcles, and tendons, more elaſtic than ſtrong: they do by activity and ſwiftneſs what others do by power. It would ſeem as if their arid ſoil had abſorbed the portion of ſubſtance which nature owed them. Their gloſſy ſkin is of a deep tranſparent black. They bear moſt reſemblance to the negroes, or natives of the weſt of Africa. Their eyes are ſunk and brilliant, and ſurmounted by elliptic eyebrows; their noſtrils are large; their noſe pointed; their mouth wide, without thick lips; their hair and beards ſcanty, and in little curls. Wrinkled early in life, but agile to its lateſt period, age manifeſts itſelf only by the whiteneſs of their beards. Their bodies continue lank and nervous. Their phyſiognomy is cheerful; they are active and well diſpoſed. They are ordinarily employed as guards of magazines and timber yards. They are clothed with a piece of white woollen cloth; they earn little; ſubſiſt on almoſt nothing; and ſerve their maſter with attachment and fidelity.

PYRAMIDS.—SPHINX.

In the officer who commanded the eſcort, M. Denon found one of his friends. This gentleman made him one of the ſmall number who, out of the three hundred perſons that compoſed the company, were to enter the pyramids. In the morning, the journey was proceeded on, by means of the canals of irrigation. After landing ſeveral times on cultivated country, the barges were finally left behind, on the edge of the deſert. M. Denon and his companions ſcarcely ſet foot on land before they found themſelves in the ſands, through which they waded to the plain on which the pyramids ſtand. On approaching theſe coloſſal monuments, their angular and inclined form takes from the appearance of their height and deceives the eye: beſides, as every thing that is regular is ſmall or great only by compariſon, theſe maſſes, though they ſurpaſs every object that ſurrounds them, yet do not equal the extent of a mountain (the only great body with which the mind naturally compares them) the ſpectator is aſtoniſhed to feel within himſelf an abatement of that impreſſion which they had produced while at a diſtance; but as ſoon as he begins to meaſure by a known ſcale theſe gigantic productions of art, they recover all their immenſity: in fact, a hundred men who were at the door or opening of one of them when M. Denon came up, were ſo diminiſhed by their ſituation, that they did not appear to be of human ſtature. I think, adds M. Denon, that in order to give, in picture, an idea of the dimenſions of theſe edifices, it would be proper to repreſent, on the ſame painting or drawing, in its true proportion, a religious ceremony analogous to the ancient uſages. Theſe monuments, ſtripped of their living ſcale, merely accompanied by a few figures in the front of the deſign, loſe all the effect of their proportions and of the impreſſion they ought to make. We have an example of compariſon in Europe, in the church of St. Peter at Rome, of which the harmony of the proportions, or rather the graduation of the lines, conceals the height, the idea of which is not reſtored till, lowering the eyes on ſome prieſts going to ſay maſs, followed by a troop of devotees, we imagine that we ſee a group of puppets about to play Athalia on the ſtage at Verſailles.

Approaching the pyramids from Kaira, the firſt we meet with is that which is the only open one, and which is diſtinguiſhed by the addition, *of Chæps*. At the elevation of ſixty feet from the baſe of this pyramid there has been diſcovered an entrance which the architect had concealed under the third and outermoſt coating of the fabric. To this entrance the traveller aſcends by a heap of rubbiſh and ſand, part of which, poſſibly, has remained from the time of laying the

foundation. It is the mouth of a gallery, ſixty-five feet in length, which runs toward the center and the baſe of the building, without, however, extending to either. Rubbiſh, which at the time of building was perhaps but ſlovenly removed, or which, in conſequence of the declivity, has fallen into it from the ſide of the edifice, added to the ſand which a north wind blows into it daily from the deſert, and which nothing removes, has rendered this gallery very incommodious for paſſing. At its extremity are two blocks of granite, which, ſtopping the progreſs of thoſe who formerly inveſtigated the pile, cauſed them to make an horizontal excavation of the maſs itſelf, which turned out fruitleſs. Returning therefore to the blocks, and cutting an aſcending paſſage round them, of twenty-two feet in length, they diſcovered a ſecond gallery, alſo on an aſcent, and 120 feet in length. This gallery is very narrow, and ſo ſteep that, in order to aſcend it, it was neceſſary to cut a ſort of ſteps. At its top is what may be denominated a landing-place, of about fifteen feet ſquare. Here three apertures preſent themſelves. The firſt is ſunk in a perpendicular direction; and this it is agreed to call *the well*. Time, light, and ropes, are neceſſary to aſcertain its depth; but the noiſe made by a ſtone, on being dropped down, leads to a concluſion that its perpendicular direction is ſhort. The width of its mouth is two feet by eighteen inches. To its right is an horizontal gallery of a hundred and ſeventy feet in length, and leading to the center of the pyramid. At its termination is a chamber, called *the queen's*, of a long ſquare form, eighteen feet two inches, by fifteen feet eight inches. Its original height is uncertain; becauſe former viſitants have dug up the flooring, and pulled in part of its ſides, and left its bottom incumbered with the rubbiſh proceeding from theſe operations. The ceiling is in the form of an angle, almoſt equilateral. This chamber has no ornament, cornice, inſcription, hieroglyphic, or ſarcophagus; but it is formed of a fine calcareous ſtone, and the maſonry is elaborate. If this chamber were deſigned to contain a corpſe, then it is probable that the pyramid, deſtined for the tomb of two perſons, was not finally cloſed at the time of depoſiting the body of the firſt; that this was really intended for the queen; and that the two blocks of granite which have been mentioned were reſerved for that final incloſure of the whole.

Returning to the platform on which is the well, and from which, as has been ſaid, apertures in three directions proceed, we commence a reſearch into the third. After climbing a few feet, a large and magnificent gallery or ſlope is diſcovered, of a hundred and eighty feet in length, and proceeding like the former toward the center of the edifice. Its width is ſix feet ſix inches; in which muſt be comprehended two parapets of nineteen inches diameter, pierced, for the ſpace of three feet ſix inches, in holes of twenty-two inches long and three wide. This ſlope was doubtleſsly contrived for raiſing the ſarcophagus; and the holes ſerved to aſſiſt ſome machine in hoiſting this maſs up a place ſo rapidly inclined. The ſame machine would probably require the aſſiſtance of ſimilar indentures above the lateral part of each of theſe holes, which, after being uſed, were repaired in the finiſhing. The width of the gallery is gradually leſs and leſs toward its top. This drawing together of the ſides is effected by eight projections of the height of ſix feet each; which, joined to twelve feet from the floor to the firſt plat-band, gives a total height of ſixty feet to the key of this extraordinary vault. Arrived, with the aſſiſtance of ſome regular but modern indentures, at its top, we meet with a little platform or landing-place, and, after this, a ſort of cloſet of granite, in the ſides of which, large blocks of the ſame ſtone, filling the ſpace between them, are dove-tailed. This barricade was intended to conceal and defend for ever the door of the prin-

cipal ſepulchre; a complication of conſtruction which ſets in the ſtrongeſt light the importance attached by the Egyptians to the inviolability of their graves: but all that enthuſiaſm atchieved, avarice has rendered nugatory. With immenſe labour, a breach has been effected through thirty feet of granite, and a ſquare door of three feet three inches diſcovered. This is the door of the royal chamber containing the ſarcophagus; the little ſanctuary which is the object of a building ſo monſtrous, ſo coloſſal in compariſon with every thing coloſſal that men have produced! The royal chamber is ſixteen feet in depth by thirty-two in width, and eighteen in height. The door in this as in the queen's chamber, is in the angle of the longeſt ſide. Toward the bottom of the chamber, on the right of the door, is an inſulated ſarcophagus, of ſix feet eleven inches in length, three feet in width, and three feet one inch and ſix lines in height. When it is ſaid that this tomb is a ſingle block of granite, that the chamber is but a cabinet of the ſame material, half poliſhed, and ſo exquiſitely put together that no cement has been neceſſary in any part of its maſonry, we ſhall have deſcribed this ſingular monument, and given an idea of the auſterity of its magnificence.

The tomb is open and empty, nor does a ſingle veſtige of its lid remain. The only dilapidation in this chamber is that cauſed by an attempt to dig, at one of the angles of the floor, and two little holes, nearly round, at breaſt height, and to which the curious have attached more importance than they deſerve. Here ends the reſearch, as here appears to end the aim of this amazing undertaking, in which man ſeems to have tried his ſtrength with nature.

M. Groſbert, an engineer, who has viſited the pyramids, gives a baſe of 720 feet, and a height of 448 *, to that of Chæops. He calculates the baſe by the mean proportion of the length of the ſtones; and the height by adding the meaſures of each of ſeveral gradations. According to the calculations of Groſbert and Maillet, the ſepulchral chamber is 160 feet above the plane on which the pyramid ſtands.

The baſe of the pyramid called Chephrenes is eſtimated by the ſame author at 655 feet, and its elevation at 398. Its coating, of which a portion ſtill remains on the upper part, is a plaſter compoſed of gypſum, ſand, and pebbles. The Miſerinus, or third pyramid, is ſaid, alſo by M. Groſbert, to have a baſe 208 feet, and an elevation of 162.

No more than two hours were allowed for the examination of the pyramids. M. Denon employed an hour and a half in viſiting the interior of the only one that is open; and returned from his journey wearied in body and in mind, and feeling his curioſity concerning the pyramids, rather than gratified, more irritated than before.

He had time only to take a general ſurvey of the ſphinx, a monument which deſerves to be drawn with the moſt ſcrupulous care; a degree of attention which it has never received. Though its proportions are coloſſal, its contours are as delicate as correct. The expreſſion of the head is ſoft, gracious, and tranquil. The character is African; but the mouth, the lips of which are thick, has a ſweetneſs in its drawing and an elegance in its execution which are truly admirable: it is abſolutely fleſh and life. When a piece of ſculpture like this was produced, the art muſt have been at a high degree of perfection. If it is without what it is agreed to call claſſic, that is to ſay, the ſtraight and lofty lines which the Greeks gave to their divinities, juſtice has not, on the other hand, been done to the ſimplicity, nor to the grand and ſoft expreſſion of nature, which demand admiration in this figure. On the whole, aſtoniſhment has been excited only by

* The Paris foot is to the London, as 1068 to 1000.

the dimenſions of the ſphinx, while the perfection of its execution, ſhould awaken it ſtill more.

We are almoſt as unacquainted with the epoch at which the pyramids were violated, as of that at which they were conſtructed: the latter, loſt in the night of ages, opens an immenſe period in the annals of the arts: in this point of view, we cannot too warmly admire the maſonry of the pyramids, the unalterability of their form and of their fabric; and, with regard to their vaſt dimenſions, it may be ſaid of theſe gigantic monuments, that they are the laſt link between the coloſſuſes of art and thoſe of nature.

Herodotus relates that he was informed the great pyramid was the tomb of Chæops; that the next was that of his brother Chephrenes, his ſucceſſor; that that of Chæops alone had interior galleries; that a hundred thouſand men had been employed during twenty years in building it; that the toil which the edifice coſt rendered the prince odious to his ſubjects; and that, notwithſtanding, the gratuitous labour which he forced from his people, the expences of feeding the workmen only were ſo great, that he was obliged to proſtitute his daughter in order to complete the pile; and that, to conclude, out of the ſurplus of the profits of her proſtitution, the princeſs had been able to build the little pyramid which ſtands oppoſite to this. Now, either the Egyptian princeſſes who proſtituted themſelves in thoſe days muſt have charged high, or filial piety muſt have been carried a prodigious length by the daughter of Chæops; ſince, in her enthuſiaſm, ſhe diſplayed even more devotion than her father required of her, having collected enough to erect a ſecond pyramid on his account. But what exertion during a man's life to ſecure himſelf a ſecure aſylum after his death! It muſt be added, that Chæops having ſhut up the temples during his reign, did not, when dead, find panegyriſts among the ſacerdotal hiſtorians of Egypt; and that Herodotus, the earlieſt author who throws light on this country, gives ear to many fables of theſe prieſts.

DUPUIS AND SULKOWSKY.

General Dupuis, an excellent commander, who, during two years ſpent in the brilliant campaigns of Italy, had braved all the dangers with which the career of glory is beſet, was aſſaſſinated while on a reconnoitring party, by a random weapon: a knife faſtened in the end of a ſtick, and thrown from a window, cut the artery of his arm; and he died within a few inſtants. The young and brave Sulkowſky, ſcarcely recovered from the wounds which he had received in the chivalric affray of Salayer, went to reconnoitre the enemy. Diſcovering him, he commenced an attack, notwithſtanding the diſproportion of the numbers. He overthrew him, purſued, and fell into an ambuſcade. His horſe, pierced with a lance, fell upon him; and he was trodden down by thoſe who came to his aſſiſtance. Thus fell one of the moſt diſtinguiſhed officers of the army: an obſerver on its marches, a knight in its battles, the pen relaxed his hands during its fatigues. He had written an account of the march to Belbeys with all the grace and intereſt which another ought to give to that of the combats he ſuſtained, and the glorious wounds he received. Ambitious of glory, this young ſtranger had ſought it in the warfare of the French; checking the vivacity of his character, he had reſtrained his conduct within the bounds preſcribed by him whom he had choſen for his maſter; deſirous of diſtinction, he puſhed this paſſion even to jealouſy; and the taſk he propoſed for himſelf manifeſted the extent of what was to have been expected from him. M. Denon was the confident of the paſſion of his youth, of his noble ambition; this was laudable and great: it was by ſtudy, and by real merit, that he ſought its gratification. Only a few hours had paſſed ſince, in a friendly converſation, he had intereſted his friend by his energy, when the news of his death arrived to ſhake and freeze his ſoul.

A correct LIST *of the* MEMBERS *returned for the enſuing* PARLIAMENT.

* Old Members ſitting for New Places. † New Members.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

Abingdon	Thomas Theophilus Metcalfe
Agmondeſham	T. Drake Tyrwhitt, C. Drake Garrard
Albans, St.	W. Stephen Poyntz, Hon. J. W. Grimſtone †
Aldeburgh (Suffolk)	Sir John Aubrey, bart. Colonel J. M'Mahon †
Aldborough	Charles Duncombe, jun. John Sullivan †
Andover	T. Aſheton Smith, Hon. Newton Fellowes †
Angleſea	Hon. Arthur Paget
Appleby	John Courtenay, Philip Francis †
Arundel	Lord Andover †, John Atkins †
Aſhburton	Walker Palk, Sir Hugh Inglis †
Ayleſbury	Robert Bent †, James Dupre *
Banbury	Dudley North
Barnſtaple	Sir Edward Pellew †, William Devaynes *
Bath City	Lord John Thynne, John Palmer
Beaumaris Town	Lord Newborough
Bedfordſhire	Hon. St. Andrew St. John, John Oſborn
Bedford Town	Samuel Whitbread, William Lee Antonie †
Bedwin, Great	Sir R. J. Buxton, bart. Sir N. Holland †
Beeralſton	William Mitford, Lord Lovaine
Berkſhire	George Vanſittart, Charles Dundas
Berwick (Northumb.)	John Fordyce *, Thomas Hall †
Beverley	Napier Chriſtie Burton, John Wharton †
Bewdley	Miles Peter Andrews
Biſhop's Caſtle	John Robinſon *, William Clive
Bletchingly	James Milnes †, John Benn Walſh
Bodmyn	Joſiah Dupre Porcher †, C. Shaw Lefevre *
Boroughbridge	Hon. John Scott, Edward Berkeley Portman †
Boſiney	Hon. J. Stuart Wortley, John Hiley Addington *
Boſton	Thomas Fydell, William Alexander Madocks †
Brackley	John William Egerton, Samuel Haynes
Bramber	George Sutton *, Henry Joddrell *
Brecon County	Sir Charles Morgan
Brecon Town	Sir Robert Saluſbury, bart.
Bridgnorth	Iſaac Hawkins Browne, John Whitmore
Bridport	Sir Evan Nepean *, George Barclay
Bridgewater	George Pocock, Jefferys Allen
Briſtol City	Charles Bragge, Evan Baillie †
Buckinghamſhire	Marquis of Titchfield, Earl Temple
Buckingham Town	Right Hon. Thomas Grenville, Lord Proby †
Callington	Paul Orchard, John Inglett Forteſcue
Calne	Joſeph Jekyll, Lord Henry Petty †
Cambridgeſhire	Right Hon. Charles Yorke, Lord C. Manners †
Cambridge Town	Robert Manners, Hon. Edward Finch
Cambridge Univerſity	Right Hon. William Pitt, Earl of Euſton
Camelford	Robert Adair *, John Fonblanque †
Canterbury	Hon. George Watſon, John Baker †
Cardiff	Lord Evelyn James Stuart
Cardiganſhire	Thomas Johnes
Cardigan Town	Hon. John Vaughan
Carliſle City	John Chriſtian Curwen, W. Spencer Stanhope *
Carmarthenſhire	James Hamlyn Williams
Carmarthen Town	John George Philips
Carnarvonſhire	Sir Robert Williams
Carnarvon Town	Hon. Edward Paget
Caſtle Riſing	Peter Iſaac Thelluſſon *, Charles Cheſter

Cheſhire	John William Egerton *, T. Cholmondeley
Cheſter	Lord Belgrave (*now Earl Groſvenor*), Thomas Groſvenor
Chicheſter	Right Hon. Thomas Steele, George White Thomas
Chippenham	James Dawkins, Charles Brooke †
Chriſtchurch	Right Hon. George Roſe, William Sturges *
Cirenceſter	Sir Robert Preſton, Michael Hicks Beach
Clitheroe	Hon. Robert Curzon, Hon. John Cuſt †
Cockermouth	Robert Ward †, James Graham †
Colcheſter	Robert Thornton, John Deniſon *
Corf Caſtle	Henry Banks, Nathaniel Bond
Cornwall	Sir William Lemon, Francis Gregor
Coventry	Nathaniel Jeffries, Captain Barlowe †
Cricklade	Lord Porcheſter, Thomas Eſtcourt
Cumberland	Sir Henry Fletcher, Bart. John Lowther
Dartmouth	Edmund Baſtard, Right Hon. John Charles Villiers
Denbighſhire	Sir Watkin Williams Wynne
Denbigh Town	Hon. Frederick Weſt †
Derbyſhire	Lord George Auguſtus Henry Cavendiſh, E. Miller Mundy
Derby Town	Edward Coke, Hon. George Walpole
Devizes	Right Hon. Henry Addington, Joſhua Smith
Devonſhire	John N. Baſtard, Sir Lawrence Palk
Dorſetſhire	William Morton Pitt, Francis John Browne
Dorcheſter	Hon. Cropley Aſhley, Francis Fane
Dover	John Spencer Smith †, John Trevanion
Downton	Hon. John William Ward †, Hon. Edward Bouverie
Droitwich	Hon. Andrew Foley, Sir Edward Winnington
Dunwich	Lord Huntingfield, Snowden Barne
Durham County	Sir Ralph Milbanke, Rowland Burdon
Durham City	Ralph John Lambton, Mr. Wharton †
Eaſt Looe	John Buller †, Edward Buller †
Edmondſbury, St.	Lord Charles Fitzroy †, Lord Hervey
Eſſex	Eliab Harvey †, John Bullock
Eveſham	Patrick Crauford Bruce †, Charlee Thelluſſon
Exeter	James Buller *, Sir Charles Bampfylde
Eye	Hon. William Cornwallis, James Cornwallis
Flintſhire	Sir Thomas Moſtyn
Flint Town	Watkin Williams
Fowey	Reginald Pole Carew †, Edward Golding
Gatton	James Daſhwood †, Mark Wood *
Germain, St.	Lord Binning †, James Langham †
Glamorganſhire	Thomas Windham
Glouceſterſhire	Hon. G. Cranfield Berkeley, Marquis of Worceſter
Glouceſter City	John Pitt, Henry Howard
Grampound	B. Hobhouſe *, Sir C. Hawkins
Grantham	Sir William E. Welby, †, Thomas Thoroton
Grimſby, Great	Ayſcough Boucherett, J. H. Loft †,
Grinſtead, Eaſt	Sir H. Strachey *, Daniel Giles †
Guildford	Lord Cranley, Hon. J. Chapple Norton
Hampſhire	Sir William Heathcote, William Chute
Harwich	John Robinſon, Thomas Myers †
Haſlemere	George Wood, Richard Penn *
Haſtings	Lord Glenbervie *, William Gunning *
Haverfordweſt	Lord Kenſington
Helſton	Lord Fitzharris †, John Penn †
Hereforddhire	Sir G. Cornewall †, J. G. Cotterell †
Hereford City	John Scudamore, T. Powell Symonds
Hertfordſhire	Hon. P. Lamb †, William Plumer
Hertford Town	Hon. E. Spencer Cowper †, N. Calvert
Hedon	George Johnſtone *, Chriſtopher Saville
Heytesbury	Right Hon. Charles Abbott *, Viſcount Kirkwall †
Higham Ferrers	Francis Ferrand Foljambe

Hindon	Right Hon. T. Wallace *, John Pedley †
Honiton	George Shum, Sir John Honeywood *
Horſham	Patrick Roſs †, Edward Hilliard †
Huntingdonſhire	Lord Hitchinbrook, Lord Frederic Montague
Huntingdon Town	William Henry Fellowes, John Calvert
Hythe	Matthew White †, Thomas G. Godfrey †
Ilcheſter	Thomas Plummer †, William Hunter †
Ipſwich	Charles Alexander Cricket, Sir Andrew Snape Hammond
St. Ives	William Praed, Jonathan Raine †
Kent	Sir William Geary, Filmer Honywood †
King's Lynn	Sir Martin Brown Folkes, W. Walpole †
Kingſton upon Hull	Samuel Thornton, John Staniforth †
Knareſborough	James Hare, Lord John Townſhend
Lancaſhire	Thomas Stanley, John Blackburne
Lancaſter Town	Marquis Douglas, John Dent
Launceſton	Capt. R. H. A. Bennet †, James Brogden
Leiceſterſhire	G. A. L. Keck, Sir E. C. Hartopp
Leiceſter	Samuel Smith, Thomas Babington
Leominſter	Mr. Lubbock *, Mr. Kinnaird †
Leſkeard	Hon. John Eliot, Hon. William Eliot *
Leſtwithiel	Hans Sloane, William Dickinſon, jun. *
Lewes	Lord F. Oſborne *, Henry Shelley †
Litchfield	Thomas Anſon, Sir John Wrottesley
Lime Regis	Hon. Henry Fane, Hon. Thomas Fane
Lincolnſhire	Charles Chaplin †, Sir Gilbert Heathcote
Lincoln City	Richard Elliſon, Humphrey Sibthorpe
Liverpool	Banaſtre Tarlton, Iſaac Gaſcoigne
London	Sir J. W. Anderſon, H. C. Combe, C. Price †, W. Curtis
Ludlow	Richard Payne Knight, Hon. Robert Clive
Ludgerſhall	Earl of Dalkeith, Thomas Everett
Lymington	Major-general Burrard †, William Manning
Maidſtone	Sir Matthew Bloxam, John Hodſdon Durand †
Maldon	Joſeph H. Strutt, Charles Callis Weſtern
Malmeſbury	Samuel Scott †, Claude Scott †
Malton	Bryan Cooke, Hon. Charles Lawrence Dundas
Marlborough	Right Hon. Lord Bruce, James H. Leigh †
Marlow	Thomas Williams, Owen Williams
Mawe's, St.	Right Hon. William Windham *, Sir William Young
Melcombe Regis	William Garthſhore, Mr. Arbuthnot †
Merionethſhire	Sir Robert Williams Vaughan
Michael's, St.	Robert Dallas †, Robert Sharpe Aimſlie †
Middleſex	George Byng, Sir Francis Burdett, bart. *
Midhurſt	George Smith, Samuel Smith †
Milborne Port	Lord Henry Paget, Hugh Leyceſter †
Minehead	John Fownes Luttrell, John Patteſon †
Monmouthſhire	James Rooke, Charles Morgan
Monmouth Town	Lord Charles Somerſet *
Montgomeryſhire	Charles Watkyn Williams Wynne
Montgomery Town	Whitſhed Keane
Morpeth	Lord Morpeth, William Ord †
Newark	Sir Charles Morice Pole †, Sir T. Manners Sutton †
Newcaſtle-under-Lime	Sir R. Lawley †, E. Wilb. Bootle
Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne	Sir Matthew White Ridley, C. J. Brandling
Newport, Cornwall	William Northey, Joſeph Richardſon
Newport, Hants	John Blackburne *, Richard Gervas Ker †
Newtown, Lancaſhire	Thomas Brooke, Peter Patten
Newtown, Hants	Sir Robert Barclay †, Charles Chapman †
Norfolk	Thomas William Coke, Sir Jacob Aſtley
Northallerton	Henry Pierce, Hon. Edward Laſcelles
Northamptonſhire	Francis Dickins, W. Ralph Cartwright
Northampton Town	Hon. Edward Bouverie, Hon. Spencer Percival

Northumberland	Hon. Charles Grey, Thomas Richard Beaumont
Norwich	William Smith *, R. Fellowes †
Nottinghamſh're	Lord W. H. C. Bentinck, C. H. Pierrepont
Nottingham Town	Joſeph Birch †, Sir John Borlaſe Warren
Oakhampton	Mr. Strange, Mr. Holland †
Orford	Lord R. Seymour Conway, James Trail †
Oxfordſhire	Lord Francis Almaric Spencer, John Fane
Oxford City	Atkyns Wright †, Francis Burton
Oxford Univerſity	Sir William Dolben, Sir William Scott
Pembrokeſhire	Lord Milford
Pembroke Town	Hugh Barlow
Penrhyn	Sir Stephen Luſhington, Sir John Nicholl †
Peterborough City	French Laurence, William Elliot *
Petersfield	Hylton Jolliffe, Serjeant William Beſt †
Plymouth	Sir William Elford, Philip Langmead †
Plympton	Philip Metcalf *, Mr. Gould †
Pontefract	John Smyth, Richard Benyon †
Poole	John Jeffery, George Garland
Portſmouth	Hon. Thomas Erſkine, John Markham
Preſton	John Horrocks †, Lord Stanley
Queenborough	John Prinſep †, George Peter Moore †
Radnor County	Walter Wilkins
Radnor Town, New	Richard Price
Reading	Charles Shaw Lefevre *, Francis Anneſley
Retford, Eaſt	Colonel Robert Craufurd †, John Jaffray †
Richmond, Yorkſhire	Hon. G. H. L. Dundas, A Shakeſpear
Rippon	John Heathcote, Sir James Graham
Rocheſter	Sir Sydney Smith †, James Hulkes †
Romney, New	John Willett Willett, Manaſſeh Lopez †
Rutland	Gerard Noel Noel, Lord Carbery †
Rye	Lord Hawkeſbury, Thomas Davis Lamb †
Rygate	Hon. John Somers Cocks, Hon. Joſeph Sidney Yorke
Shropſhire	Sir Richard Hill, John Kynaſton Powell
Saltaſh	Matthew Ruſſell †, Robert Deverell
Sandwich	Sir Philip Stephens, Sir Horace Mann
Sarum, New	Lord Viſcount Folkeſtone *, William Huſſey
Sarum, Old	Nicholas Vanſittart *, Henry Alexander *
Scarborough	Hon. Edmund Phipps, Lord Robert Manners †
Seaford	Richard Joſeph Sullivan †, Charles Roſe Ellis
Shafteſbury	E. Loveden Loveden †, Robert Hurſt †
Shoreham, New	Sir Cecil Biſhopp, Timothy Shelley †
Shrewſbury	Sir William Pulteney, Hon. William Hill
Somerſetſhire	William Gore Langton, William Dickinſon, ſen.
Southampton	James Amyatt, George Henry Roſe
Southwark	Henry Thornton, George Tierney
Staffordſhire	Sir Edward Littleton, Lord G. L. Gower
Stafford Town	Hon. Edward Monckton, Richard Brinſley Sheridan
Stamford	John Leland, Albemarle Bertie
Steyning	James Martyn Lloyd, Robert Hurſt †
Stockbridge	Joſeph Foſter Barham †, George Porter
Sudbury	Sir J. Cox Hippeſley, John Pytches †
Suffolk	Sir Charles Bunbury, Lord Brome
Surrey	Lord William Ruſſell, Sir John Frederick
Suſſex	Hon. Charles Lennox, John Fuller
Tamworth	General William Loftus *, Sir Robert Peele
Taviſtock	Hon. Richard Fitzpatrick, Lord Robert Spencer
Taunton	William Morland, John Hammet
Tewkeſbury	James Martin, Chriſtopher Codrington
Thetford	Thomas Creevy †, John Harriſon
Thirſk	Sir Gregory Page Turner, William Frankland
Tiverton	Right Hon. Dudley Rider, Hon. Richard Rider

Totneſs	John Berkley Burland †, William Adams
Tregony	Marquis of Blandford †, Charles Cockerell †
Truro,	Edward Leveſon Gower †, John Lemon
Walingford	William Lewis Hughes †, Sir Francis Sykes
Wareham	John Calcraft, Andrew Strahan *
Warwickſhire	Sir G. A. W. S. Evelyn, D. S. Dugdale †
Warwick Town	Lord Brooke †, Charles Mills †
Wells City	Clement Tudway, Charles William Taylor
Wendover	Charles Long *, John Smith *
Wenlock	Cecil Foreſter, Hon. A. Simpſon
Weobly	Lord George Tynne, Robert Steele †
Weſtbury	William Baldwyn †, Charles Smith *
Weſt Looe	James Buller *, Thomas Smith *
Weſtminſter	Hon. Charles James Fox, Lord Gardner
Weſtmoreland	Sir Richard Le Fleming, James Lowther
Weymouth	Sir James Pulteney, Gabriel Tucker Steward
Whitchurch	Hon. William Broderick, Hon. W. A. Townſend
Wigan	Robert Holt Leigh †, John Hodſon †
Wilton	Lord Viſcount Fitzwilliam, John Spencer
Wiltſhire	Ambroſe Goddard, Hon. Penruddock Wyndham
Winchester City	Sir H. Mildmay *, Sir Richard Gamon
Winchelſea	Robert Ladbroke †, William Moffatt †
Windſor	Hon. Robert F. Greville, John Williams †
Woodſtock	Sir Henry Daſhwood, Right Hon. C. Abbott *
Wootton Baſſet	Hon. Henry St. John †, R. Williams, jun. †
Worceſterſhire	Hon. Edward Foley, William Lygon
Worceſter City	Abraham Roberts, Joſeph Scott †
Wycombe Chipping	Sir John Daſhwood King, Sir Francis Baring *
Yarmouth, Hampſhire	Jervoiſe Clarke Jervoiſe, James P. Murray †
Yarmouth, Norfolk	Sir Thomas Trowbridge †, T. Jervis †
Yorkſhire	William Wilberforce, Hon. Henry Laſcelles
York	Hon. Lawrence Dundas *, Sir William Mordaunt Milner

COUNTIES IN SCOTLAND.

Aberdeenſhire	James Ferguſon
Ayrſhire	Colonel William Fullarton
Argyleſhire	Lord J. D. E. H. Campbell
Bamffſhire	Right Hon. Sir William Grant
Berwickſhire	George Baillie
Buteſhire and Caithneſs	Sir John Sinclair *
Clackmannanſhire, &c.	W. Douglas M'Lean Clephane †
Dumbartonſhire	James Colquhoun, jun.
Dumfrieſſhire	Sir Robert Lawrie
Edinburghſhire	Robert Dundas
Elginſhire	James Brodie
Fifeſhire	Sir William Erſkine
Forfarſhire	Sir David Carnegie
Haddingtonſhire	Hon. Colonel Charles Hope
Invernetsſhire	Charles Grant †
Kincardineſhire	Sir John Stuart
Kircudbright Stewartry	Patrick Heron
Lanarkſhire	Lord A. Hamilton †
Linlithgowſhire	Hon. Charles Alexander Hope
Nairnſhire and Cromarty	General Alexander M'Kenzie †
Orkney and Zetland	Captain Robert Honyman
Perthſhire	Colonel Thomas Graham
Renfrewſhire	William M'Dowall *
Roſsſhire	Sir Charles Roſs
Roxburghſhire	Sir George Douglas
Selkirkſhire	John Rutherford †

Sterlingſhire	Captain Charles Elphinſtone †
Sutherlandſhire	Right Hon. W. Dundas *
Tweedaleſhire	James Montgomery
Wigtownſhire	Andrew M'Dowall

ROYAL BURGHS.

Aberdeen, &c.	James Farquhar †
Crail, Kinrenny, &c.	General Alexander Campbell
Culroſs, Dumfermline, &c.	Sir J. Henderſon †, Alexander Cochrane †, (double return)
Cupar, Perth, &c.	David Scott
Dumbarton, &c.	Alexander Houſton †
Dumfries, Sanquhar, &c.	Hon. Charles Hope
Edinburgh City	Right Hon. Henry Dundas
Inverneſs, Nairn, &c.	A. P. C. Gordon †
Irvine, Air, &c.	J. Campbell
Kintore, Bamff, &c.	Colonel Francis W. Grant †
Kirkwall, Tain, &c.	John Charles Villiers *
Kinghorn, Kirkaldy, &c.	Sir J. St. Clair Erſkine †
Lauder, Haddington, &c.	Hon. Thomas Maitland *
Selkirk, Lanerk, &c.	Colonel W. Dickſon †
Stranrawer, &c.	John S. Fleeming †

IRELAND.

Antrim County	Hon. J. O. Neil †, E. A. M'Naghten
Armagh County	Hon. A. Acheſon, Hon. H Caulfield †
Armagh Town	Patrick Duigenan
Athlone	William Handcock
Bandon Bridge	Sir Broderick Chinnery
Belfaſt	Edward May
Carrickfergus	Lord Spencer Chicheſter †
Caſhel	Right Hon. W. Wickham
Carlow County	David Latouche, jun. †, W. Bagenal †
Carlow Town	C. Montague Olmſby
Cavan County	Nathaniel Sneyd, Francis Saunderſon
Clare County	Sir E. O'Brien †, Hon. F. N. Burton
Clonmell	William Bagwell
Cork County	Lord Boyle, R. U. Fitzgerald
Cork City	M. Longfield, Hon. C. H. Hutchinſon
Coleraine	Walter Jones †
Donegall County	Lord Sudley, Sir James Stewart †
Down County	Lord Caſtlereagh, Francis Savage
Downpatrick	Counſellor Haythorn †
Drogheda	Edward Hardman
Dublin County	Hans Hamilton, Frederick J. Faulkener
Dublin City	John C. Beresford, John Latouche, jun. †
Dublin College	Hon. George Knox
Dundalk	Richard Archdall *
Dungannon	Hon. John Knox †
Dungarvon	William Green †
Ennis	James Fitzgerald †
Enniſkillen	Hon. A. Cole Hamilton
Fermanagh County	Lord Cole, Mervyn Archdall, jun. †
Galway County	Hon. Richard Trench, Richard Martin
Galway Town	J. Brabazon Ponſonby
Kerry County	Maurice Fitzgerald James Croſbie
Kildare County	Lord R. Fitzgerald †, Robert Latouche †
Kilkenny County	Right Hon. W. B. Ponſonby, Hon. J. Butler
Kilkenny City	Hon. Charles Butler †
King's County	Sir Lawrence Parſons, Thomss Bernard †

Kinſale	William Rowley
Leitrim County	Lord Clements, Peter Latouche, jun. †
Limerick County	C. S. Oliver †, W. Odell
Limerick City	Charles Vereker †
Liſburn	Earl of Yarmouth *
Londonderry County	Lord G. Beresford †, Hon. C. W. Stuart
Londonderry City	Sir G. Fitzgerald Hill *
Longford County	Hon. T. Newcomen †, Sir T. Featherſtone
Louth County	Right Hon. J. Foſter, W. C. Forteſcue
Mallow	Denham Jephſon †
Mayo County	Hon. H. A. Dillon *, Hon. D. Browne
Meath County	Sir Marcus Somerville, T. Bligh †
Monaghan County	Richard Dawſon, C. P. Leſlie
Newry	Right Hon. Iſaac Corry *
Portarlington	Henry Parnell †
Queen's County	Hon. W. W. Pole, Sir Eyre Coote †
Roſcommon County	Hon. Edward King †, Arthur French
Roſs (New)	Charles Tottenham, jun. †
Sligo County	Charles O'Hara, J. E. Cowper
Sligo Town	Owen Wynne
Tipperary County	Lord F. Mathew, John Bagwell
Tralee	Right Hon. George Canning *
Tyrone County	James Stewart, Right Hon. J. Stewart
Waterford County	Right Hon. John Beresford, Edward Lee *
Waterford City	John Congreve Alcock
Weſtmeath County	G. Hume Rochfort, William Smith
Wexford County	Lord Loftus Abel Ram
Wexford Town	R. Neville †
Wicklow County	W. H. Hume, George Ponſonby
Youghall	Sir John Keene

PEERS OF SCOTLAND RETURNED.

Marquis of Tweedale	Earl of Balcarras
Earl of Eglintoune	Earl of Aboyne
Earl of Caſſilis	Earl of Breadalbane
Earl of Strathmore	Earl of Stair
Earl of Dumfries	Earl of Glaſgow
Earl of Elgin	Lord Cathcart
Earl of Dalhouſie	Lord Somerville
Earl of Northeſk	Lord Napier

THE BRITISH MUSE.

REFLECTION.

From YOUTH, a Poem,

By J. BIDLAKE, A. B.

OFT have I ſeen, when muſing on the ſhore,
Unſkilful infants graſp the unwieldy oar;
Puſh the frail bark into the ſwelling main,
Borne by the rapid tide, pant to regain
The leſs'ning land, and ſhrieking weep too late,
The gaping horrors of tempeſtuous fate.
True picture of our unſuſpecting age
Who long to ſtretch where fatal billows rage.
'Gainſt our own heav'n, like angels we rebel,
And quit the realms where during raptures dwell;
Pant for a wing to range the world around:
The world! how ſwoons my ſoul to hear the ſound!
The world, where pleaſure flies the graſping hand,
And hope builds palaces on ſhifting ſand;
Where treach'ry talks with ſweetly melting flow
Of honied words, that turn to gall and woe;
Confed'racies of profit or of vice,
Where friendſhip's only firm as faithleſs ice,
When potent av'rice caſts a golden ray,
Diſſolves its brittle maſs, and floats away;
Fix'd in the breaſt, where pride or int'reſt thrives,
And love a ſecondary paſſion lives;

Where children cheriſh'd by affection's ray,
Long in the duſt the partial fire to lay;
Tho' daily fondneſs beams the conſtant ſmile,
And only wiſely keeps its own awhile.
Here obligation e'en beneath the wing
That hatches it to life will fix a ſting;
Here worth is trampled down by mounted pride;
And modeſty by av'rice puſh'd aſide;
Such ſlow diſcernment guides the ſtupid crowd,
That impudence for talent is allow'd.
In life's true maſquerade fools are ſo blind,
That half a thin diſguiſe will cheat mankind;
Here oſtentation weak expedients tries,
To lead from happineſs our wand'ring eyes.
Thou wouldſt do good! but be thou pure as ſnow,
With ev'ry kindneſs let thy boſom glow;
Detraction's pois'nous breath thy fame ſhall blot,
Or envy's microſcope pry out a ſpot.
Has then this ſickly world no cordial balm?
This ſtorm of paſſion no delightful calm?
Yes, as the traveller mid dreary waſtes,
Here meets a flow'ret, there a fountain taſtes;
As ſtars that aid the gloom of during night,
So ſcatter'd worth diffuſes partial light;
O'er all our ills a ſelf-born radiance ſheds,
More bright, like phoſphorus, as darkneſs ſpreads.
Let potent wiſdom ſmooth the wrinkled brow,
And ſweet complacence ſoften all below;
See in each riſing ſun new comfort giv'n,
And when it ſets behold a nearer heav'n;
The few rare gems of friendſhip here improve,
As fading emblems of eternal love.

EXILE.

By Miſs BANNERMAN.

[From the Poetical Regiſter *.]

YE hills of my country, ſoft fading in blue;
The ſeats of my childhood, for ever adieu!
Yet not for a brighter, your ſkies I reſign,
When my wandering footſteps reviſit the Rhine:
But ſacred to me is the roar of the wave,
That mingles its tide with the blood of the brave;
Where the blaſts of the trumpets for battle combine,
And the heart was laid low that gave rapture to mine.

Ye ſcenes of remembrance that ſorrow beguil'd,
Your uplands I leave for the deſolate wild;
For nature is nought to the eye of deſpair
But the image of hopes that have vaniſh'd in air:
Again ye fair bloſſoms of flower and of tree,
Ye ſhall bloom to the morn, tho' ye bloom not for me;
Again your lone wood-paths that wind by the ſtream,
Be the haunt of the lover—to hope—and to dream.

But never to me ſhall the ſummer renew
The bowers where the days of my happineſs flew;
Where my ſoul found her partner, and thought to beſtow
The colours of heaven on the dwellings of woe!
Too faithful recorders of times that are paſt,
The Eden of Love, that was ever to laſt!
Once more may ſoft accents your wild echoes fill,
And the young and the happy be worſhippers ſtill.

To me ye are loſt!—but your ſummits of green
Shall charm thro' the diſtance of many a ſcene,
In woe, and in wandering, and deſerts, return
Like the ſoul of the dead to the periſhing urn!
Ye hills of my country! farewell evermore
As I cleave the dark waves of your rock-rugged ſhore,
And aſk of the hovering gale if it come
From the oak-towering woods on the mountains of home.

To a LADY on her BIRTH-DAY.

By the Rev. W. BELOE.

[From the Same.]

YOUTH gives the hope of many a lovely ſpring,
Of cheerful ſuns, of ſkies without a cloud:—
What to the ills of life can ſolace bring
O'er the torn heart when cares unnumber'd crowd?

* Several of the Poetical Articles inſerted laſt Month, were taken from the ſame reſpectable publication.

Elate with joy and ſmiles we glide along
O'er many a fragrant, many a flowery plain;
Nor heed the moraliſt's cold warning ſong,
Which talks of ſorrow, ſuffering, and pain.

But when the ſummer of our years is gone,
When ardour chills, and vigour fades away;
Oft muſt we wander comfortleſs alone,
And in November—look in vain for May.

The nightingale, with breaſt againſt a thorn,
Expiring ſings her laſt melodious ſtrains;
The Muſe thus hails Matilda's natal morn,
Proud of her friendſhip long as life remains.

May that kind power who thus auſpicious gave
A mind ſo gentle to a form ſo fair;
From every grief and care my favourite ſave,
From every breath of Fortune's ruder air.

While ſome dear youth ſhall ſhare Matilda's heart,
Her cares partake, her tenderneſs repay;
The Bard ſhall oft invoke the Muſe's art,
To give theſe hours the bloom of Love and May.

THE CONSOLATION.

By a SUBALTERN in the ARMY.

[From the Same.]

WHEN the ſilver-clad Empreſs of night
In the ether ſuſpended is ſeen,
The ſwift-footed Fairies delight
To revel and dance on the green.

So lightly they paſs and repaſs—
They ſcarcely diſturb as they tread
The dew that beſpangles the graſs,
And beams on the Primroſes head.

But of pleaſure, how ſhort is the ſtay—
Like a ſhadow it comes and it goes:
And the light-hearted Fairies by day
In the cups of the Cowſlip repoſe.

There, ſcreen'd from the Sun's gariſh light,
They ſleep undiſturb'd and unſeen;
But the Owlet ſhall wake them at night,
And again they ſhall dance on the green.

Tho' tranſient their *pleaſure* may ſeem—
'Tis ſtill unattended with care!
But Man's, is no more than a dream—
And his hope is the child of deſpair.

Grief ſmitten alas! and forlorn,
He thinks of himſelf with a ſigh,
And ſeems as if purpoſely born
To ſorrow alone, and to die.

Awhile in ſubmiſſion to fate
He bows to the rude blowing blaſt;
Then ſinks from this turbulent ſtate—
Forgetful of all that is paſt—

And is there a World of repoſe
For ſuch as may ſuffer in *This*,—
Where freed from the preſſure of woes
They may ſmile in the fulneſs of bliſs?

Yes, yes, there are regions we know
By Saints and by Seraphs poſſeſt,
Where the *broken* in ſpirit ſhall go
And the *Weary* be welcom'd to reſt!

VERSES

On Viſiting the TOMB of CUNNINGHAM.

By Mr. GEORGE SAVILLE CAREY.

SWEET Bard, while here, with fond reſpect,
I kneel beſide thy lonely grave,
Dear victim of the world's neglect,
A wand'ring ſtranger's tear receive.

How oft, in childhood, have I ſought
The oak-crown'd hill, the wild wood ſhade,
Where ſtretch'd along in tender thought,
Thy verſe my truant hours delay'd.

Thy artleſs and melodious ſtrain
Enamour'd ſympathy awoke,
In numbers taught me to complain,
And bade me, firſt, the muſe invoke.

Far from the city's pride retir'd,
Unheedful of deluſive fame,
Thy gentle boſom near aſpir'd
Beyond a ſylvan poet's name.

In village bow'rs, abodes of peace,
Amid a mute admiring throng,
Each native charm, each ſimple grace,
Thy fancy wove into her ſong.

The hours that gild the orient morn,
And kindle noon's oppreſſive rays,
And ev'ning's ſhad'wy brow adorn,
With inſpiration crown'd thy lays.

The Queen of night by twilight pale,
On mountain, heath, and pathleſs wild,
By haunted ſtream, and lonely vale,
On thee in radiant viſions ſmil'd.

Apart from vulgar eye conceal'd,
In annual glory deck'd anew,
The rural ſeaſons all reveal'd
Their faireſt beauties to thy view.

The wanton boy, that rules the plains,
His tuneful reed to thee reſign'd,
To ſing the loves of rural ſwains,
Of hearts by moonlight vows entwin'd.

Content, that brightens ev'ry ſcene,
Was wont her fav'rite to beguile,
Till diſappointment ſtrode between,
And robb'd thee of her ſweeteſt ſmile.

Unto thy duſt, ſweet bard, adieu!
Thy hallow'd ſhrine I ſlowly leave;
Yet oft, at eve, ſhall Mem'ry view,
The ſun-beam ling'ring on thy grave.

Affecting Detail of the LAST SCENE of the LIFE of UGGHOLINO, Count of PISA.

[From the Rev. Mr. BOYD's Tranſlation of the Inferno of Dante.]

BUT to myſelf, and to the fiends alone,
The conſummation of my woes are known.
How terrible and long I felt my fate!
When in the doleful tow'r of famine pent,
For treaſon built, a gloomy tenement,
With my four guiltleſs ſons I drooping ſat.

The firſt ſad night I paſt, unknown to ſleep,
The circling hours beheld me wake and weep;
'Till thro' an op'ning of my gloomy goal,
When now the flaming couriers of the night
On day's fair confines quench'd their waning light,
With pale and ominous dawn the morning ſtole.

That moment firſt beheld my eyelids cloſe,
A ſhort, ſad reſpite to my ling'ring woes;
But dire, prophetic dreams the curtain drew,
And ſhew'd my doom at large! Methought I ſtood
And ſaw a wolf along the plain purſu'd,
While this infernal prieſt the bugle blew.

Thence, with her whelps ſhe ſought the Julian ſteep,
But Lanfranc ſeem'd the woody paſs to keep;
Siſmondi's chiefs, and thoſe of Gualand's name,
Their fleet and famiſh'd pack of blood-hounds join'd,
Which clos'd the trembling prey before, behind;
Faſten'd at once, and tore the ſavage game.

Ere ſmiling morn had purpled o'er the ſky
I woke, and heard my children faintly cry,
And all demanding food, tho' ſtill aſleep:
Thy heart is marble, if a father's woe
It feels not now! what bids your ſorrows flow,
If for ſuch dire diſtreſs you fail to weep?

They woke at laſt, and now the time drew nigh
That brought their morning meal—a ſcant ſupply!
A ſad preſage in ev'ry boſom grew,
As they recall'd their dreams. Juſt-then, below,
A hand relentleſs lock'd the den of woe;
And on my ſons a fearful glance I threw.

No word from me was heard, or plaintive groan,
Methought I felt my heart congeal to ſtone:
They wept. At laſt, my ſweet Anſelmo cry'd,
What ails my father? what a piteous look
You caſt around! My heart with horror ſhook,
Yet nought to their ſad queſtions I reply'd.

Thus paſs'd the cheerleſs day and ling'ring night;
At laſt, the ſecond morn's aſcending light
Sent thro' the doleful gloom a dubious ray:
Reflected on each face, it ſeem'd to ſhow
The marks of my deſpair, in frantic woe
From my bare arms my fleſh I tore away.

At once they call with agonizing cries:
Let us ſupply your want—but ſpare our eyes;
Leſs anguiſh will we feel the means to give
Of life, than ſuch a ſight again to view!
Thoſe members you beſtow'd, reclaim your due!
And let our limbs afford the means to live.

Unwilling thus to aggravate their woes,
Gloomy and calm, attendant on the cloſe
Of all our pangs, I ſate, revolving ſlow;
Two days ſucceed—the fourth, pale morning broke,
O Father, help! I feel the deadly ſtroke!
My Gaddo cry'd, and ſunk beneath the blow!

Another, and another morn beheld:
Three yet remain. At length, by fate compell'd,
On the cold pavement one by one expir'd,
Groveling among the dead, of ſight depriv'd;
Two ling'ring days of torture I ſurviv'd,
And tardy fate, with ſupplication tir'd.

O'er each lov'd face my hands ſpontaneous ſtray'd,
And oft' I call'd each dear departed ſhade:
Aſſail'd by waſting want, with grief combin'd,
Gaunt famine long had try'd its pow'rs in vain;
But mortal grief at laſt reliev'd my pain,
And with cold hand the vital thread untwin'd.

THEATRE.

THE Theatre royal Covent-Garden commenced its ſeaſon on Monday, Sept. 13, with the comedy of Folly As It Flies, and the muſical romance of Roſina.

In the front of the theatre ſeveral judicious alterations and improvements have been made, and though not of any conſiderable importance, they contribute greatly to the elegance and lightneſs of the general effect.

ON Wedneſday, Sept. 15, The Hay-market theatre cloſed with The Voice of Nature, The Sixty-Third Letter, and the ballet of The Fairies' Revels. Previous to the repreſentation of the ballet, Mr. Fawcett came forward and delivered the following addreſs:

'Ladies and Gentlemen,

'Mr. Colman, the proprietor of this theatre, under whoſe management I have of late aſſiſted in many of his arrangements immediately relative to the ſtage, has deputed me to return you his warmeſt thanks for the patronage with which you have continued to honour his houſe during this ſeaſon. Allow me to ſay alſo, that the gratitude of every performer here is as ſtrongly impreſſed upon their minds as, be aſſured, it is on my own. But in addition to theſe acknowledgements, the proprietor has inſtructed me to addreſs you with matter of ſuch peculiar nature, that your patience is ſolicited while I read, *verbatim*, that which he has commiſſioned me to communicate:—

'When a royal patent was about to be granted to the late Mr. Foote, it was inquired, with that juſtice which characterizes the Engliſh throne, what annual extent of term might be allowed to him without injury to theatrical patents then exiſting in this metropolis. The proprietors of the winter theatres were interrogated on this point, and, in conſequence of their documents, a patent was granted to Foote for his life, to open a theatre annually, from the 15th of May to the 15th of September, incluſive.

'The winter houſes never cloſed preciſely on the commencement of his term; but Foote was *unique*; and depended chiefly on his own writing, and his own acting. A licence was given to the elder Colman, for the ſame annual term, on Foote's death: but, aware that he could not like his ſingularly-gifted predeceſſor, depend on his own individual powers, he engaged a regular company of comedians, chiefly ſelected from the winter-theatres, for whoſe aſſiſtance he was obliged to wait, till thoſe theatres cloſed. He ventured, in every ſhape, very deeply on a limited privilege, which this mode of ſpeculation rendered ſtill more limited. The younger Colman, our preſent proprietor, ſucceeded his father in the licence, but bought the property at the expence of ſeveral thouſand pounds; and thus came into a theatre, where the cuſtom of depending on the movements of the winter houſes has now curtailed its ſhort ſeaſon to nearly one third!

'The object at length in view is, to remedy the evil, without invidious and vain attempts to attack much more powerful theatres, who have an undoubted privilege of acting plays all the year round. The proprietor has no intention of tiring the public ear by a querulous appeal: he admits that others have the fulleſt right to make their property as productive as poſſible: he wiſhes merely to follow their example; and ſolicits your ſupport in his efforts in eſtabliſhing a company of actors totally independent of them. There are but three houſes permitted to give you regular batches of plays in London; and this houſe (by far the moſt humble) ſees no reaſon, when they will be all making their bread, on the 15th of next May, why even three of a trade ſhould not perfectly agree.

'Should his arrangements ſucceed, which are, even at this early period, actively forming, you will (on the re-opening of the theatre) greet the return to London of ſome favourites, who, it is truſted, will find no diminution of your protection;—you will witneſs new and riſing merit, which it is your marked practice to foſter. There is no theatrical town in the United Kingdoms which will not be reſorted to, in the hope of procuring you its choiceſt produce; and, in addition to other authors, you will be intreated early in the ſeaſon to ſhow your indulgence to the proprietor's further attempts at dramatic compoſition; whoſe pen, he humbly hopes, notwithſtanding the long duration of your encouragement, is not yet quite worn out in your ſervice.'

THE theatre royal Drury-lane commenced its ſeaſon on Thurſday, Sept. 16, with The Inconſtant, and Of Age To-morrow, and a very numerous audience attended the excellent performance of Mrs. Jordan, in Biſarre.

STATE PAPER.

Hague, Auguſt 14.

THE following is an authentic copy of the treaty concluded between France and the prince of Orange.

Art. I. His highneſs the prince of Naſſau-Orange-Dillenburg-Dietz, formally renounces for himſelf and his heirs and ſucceſſors, the dignity of Stadtholder of the United Provinces which now form the Batavian republic; he alſo formally renounces all rights, claims, and pretenſions whatſoever, which ariſe from the above-mentioned dignity; as likewiſe all domains and territorial property ſituate in the ſaid republic, or in its colonies.

II. His highneſs the prince of Naſſau-Orange-Dillenburg-Dietz, the princeſs his conſort, their children and heirs, ſhall enjoy all permanent or annual rents which they have in the Batavian republic, in the ſame manner as other poſſeſſors of rents in the ſaid republic.

III. To indemnify the houſe of Orange-Dillenburg-Dietz for the renunciations and ceſſions in the firſt article of the preſent treaty, his highneſs ſhall receive, 1. The biſhopric and Abbey of Fulda; 2. The Abbey of Colvey; 3. The Abbey of Weingarten, with its dependencies; 4. The Imperial Town of Dormund, in Weſtphalia, and Yſny and Buchorn, in Southern Swabia, with their territories and dependencies. His highneſs ſhall poſſeſs for ever, and in full ſovereign property, for himſelf, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, the above-mentioned biſhopric and Abbeys, which ſhall be ſecularized in his favour and the Imperial Towns, with all the territory belonging to them, under the condition that his highneſs ſhall engage to ſatisfy the exiſting and acknowledged claims to certain inheritances appertaining to his houſe, in the courſe of the laſt century. This ſatisfaction ſhall be determined by arbitrators to be appointed by the two contracting parties.

IV. The inheritance in the new ſtates which ſhall be aſſigned to the houſe of Naſſau-Orange-Dillenburg-Dietz, ſhall be regulated in the following manner. The male line ſhall ſucceed to the excluſion of the female; but in failure of male heirs, the female ſhall enter into all their rights. This clauſe ſhall extend to all the legitimate offſpring of his highneſs the prince in a direct line; and in caſe of the failure of that line, the abovementioned territory, ſtates and ſovereignty, ſhall devolve to the royal houſe of Pruſſia.

V. His majeſty the king of Pruſſia and the firſt conſul of the French Republic, in the name of the French people, reciprocally guarantee, in conjunction with his highneſs the prince of Naſſau-Orange-Dillenburg-Dietz, the indemnifications of the ceded or conquered countries, as they are ſtipulated in this treaty.

VI. His majeſty the king of Pruſſia, and his highneſs the prince of Naſſau-Orange-Dillenburg-Dietz, in like manner acknowledge the Batavian republic.

VII. Immediately after the exchange of the ratifications, his majeſty the king of Pruſſia, and his highneſs the prince of Naſſau-Orange-Dillenburg-Dietz, may take poſſeſſion of the ſtates and territories allotted to them as indemnities.

VIII. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified by the contracting parties within forty days, or ſooner, if poſſible.

Paris, May 24, 1802.

Marquis de LUCCHESINI.
General BEURNONVILLE.

FRANCE.

Paris, Sept. 7.

PURSUANT to an order from the firſt conſul to have a ſtatement laid before the ſenate of the diſputes which have recently taken place between the French republic and the regency of Algiers, and of the ſucceſsful iſſue of the meaſures that were adopted to adjuſt them, the miniſter for the foreign department made a report this day to the firſt conſul to the above effect. The report takes an hiſtorical ſurvey of the uncivilized ſtate in which the inhabitants of the northern parts of Africa are obſerved to live; and of their total diſregard of the laws that regulate the intercourſe of European nations. It then proceeds to relate the various inſults and injuries which France has lately ſuffered from the regency of Algiers, which will be found detailed in Bonaparte's letter to the dey, and again alluded to in the dey's anſwer.

In order to obtain ſatisfaction for thoſe inſults and injuries, a naval diviſion was diſpatched under the command of rear admiral Leiſſegues, and appeared before

Algiers on the 5th of Auguſt; on board was an officer of the palace, the adjutant commandant Hullin, who was the bearer of a letter from the firſt conſul to the dey, which is as follows:

'Bonaparte, Firſt Conſul, to the Moſt High and Moſt Magnificent Dey of Algiers, whom may God preſerve in Proſperity and Glory.

'I write this letter directly to you, becauſe I am aware there are ſome of your miniſters who deceive you, and induce you to believe in a manner that might draw upon you very heavy calamities.

'This letter will be delivered into your own hands by an adjutant of my palace. Its object is to call upon you for prompt reparation—a reparation ſuch as I have a right to expect from the ſentiments which you have always manifeſted toward me. A French officer has been beat in the roads of Tunis by one of your rajies. The agent for the French republic demanded ſatisfaction but was not able to obtain it. Two ſloops of war have been taken by your pirates, who took them into Algiers, and retarded their voyage. A Neopolitan veſſel was taken by your pirates in the roads of Hieres, and thus have they violated the French dominions. In fine, there are ſtill wanting 150 men belonging to a ſhip which was wrecked laſt winter on your coaſts, and are ſtill detained by you. I call upon you for reparation of all theſe wrongs; and not doubting but that you will be inclined to adopt the ſame meaſure which, under ſimilar circumſtances, I ſhould be inclined to purſue, I have diſpatched a ſhip to carry home to France the 150 of my men which I found miſſing. I have alſo to requeſt that you will uſe a prudent diſtruſt toward thoſe of your miniſters who ſhow themſelves enemies to France—than ſuch you cannot have greater enemies; and if I am deſirous to live in peace with you, it is not leſs neceſſary for you to keep up that good underſtanding which has recently been re-eſtabliſhed, and which alone can ſecure you in that rank and proſperity which you now enjoy, for God has determined that all thoſe ſhall be puniſhed who prove unjuſt toward me. If you be diſpoſed to live on friendly terms with me, you muſt not attempt to treat me as a weak power. You muſt endeavour to make the French flag reſpected, as likewiſe that of the Italian republic, that has choſen me for its chief, and in general to give me full ſatisfaction for all the outrages you have offered me. As this letter has no other object in view, I muſt intreat you to read it yourſelf with due attention, and to inform me by the return of the officers whom I have diſpatched, of the meaſures which you may have judged expedient to adopt.'

Whatever might have been the real diſpoſitions of the dey, I could diſcover in him only the deſire of living in good underſtanding with the French republic. I am deſirous, ſaid he, to continue always the ſtedfaſt friend of Bonaparte. He promiſed, and in effect, gave every ſatisfaction required at his hands. In order to pay a peculiar homage to Bonaparte in the perſon of his miniſter, he was even deſirous to deviate from the uſual forms, and contrary to the immemorial cuſtom of the regencies, he received in the moſt magnificent hioſets of his gardens, the officer of the palace, the chargé d'affaires of the republic, the rear admiral Leiſſegues, and his numerous ſtaff. It was there that he delivered into the hands of general Hullin the anſwer which he had prepared to the letter of the firſt conſul—the tenor of which is as follows:

'In the name of God alone, from the man of God, who is our maſter, illuſtrious and magnificent Lord Muſtapha Pacha, Dey of Algiers, whom may God continue in glory.

'To our Friend Bonaparte, Firſt Conſul of the French Republic, Preſident of the Italian Republic.

'I ſalute you; May the peace of God be with you!

'Now, my friend, I have to inform you that I have received your letter of the 29th Meſſidor. I have read it. It was handed to me by a general of your palace, and by your vekil, Dubois Thainville. I reply to you article by article:—

'1. You complain of the rajie Ali Tartar. Although he be one of my chief officers, I have ordered him to be arreſted and put to death. At the moment he was going to be executed, your vekil ſolicited his pardon in your name, and I acquieſced.

'2. You require I ſhould deliver up the Neopolitan veſſel taken, as you obſerve, under the French cannon. The details which have been tranſmitted you in that reſpect are not altogether exact; but, agreeably to your deſire, I have releaſed eighteen chriſtians who compoſed its crew. I have given them up into the hands of your vekil.

'3. You call upon me for a Neopolitan

veſſel which is ſaid to have ſailed from Corfu, with French diſpatches. No French papers were found upon her; but agreeably to your deſires I have reſtored liberty to her crew, and put them in the hands of your vekil.

'4. You require me to puniſh the rajie who brought in here two ſhips belonging to the French Republic. In obedience to your deſire, I have diſplaced him; but I muſt inform you, that my rajies cannot decypher the European characters: they are acquainted only with the cuſtomary paſſport, and in conſideration of that circumſtance, it were neceſſary that the ſhips of war of the French republic ſhould make ſome ſignal that might be underſtood by my corſairs.

'5. You call upon me for one hundred and fifty men, who, you ſay, are detained in my dominions; not one of them exiſts; it was the will of God that thoſe perſons ſhould have loſt themſelves, and I am ſorry for it.

'6. You obſerve there are men who give me counſels in order to perplex me: our friendſhip is ſolid, and of old ſtanding, and thoſe who endeavour to ſet us by the ears ſhall not ſucceed.

'7. You expreſs a wiſh that I ſhould be a friend to the Italian republic: at your deſire I ſhall reſpect its flag as I do yours. Had any other made me the ſame propoſition, I ſhould not have accepted it for a million of piaſtres.

'8. You have not conſented to give me 200,000 piaſtres, which I had called for as an indemnity for the loſſes which I have ſuſtained on your account:—Whether you give them to me or not, we ſhall always remain good friends.

'9. I have ſettled with my friend, Dubois Thainville, your vekil, all the buſineſs reſpecting the calle, and the coal fiſhery is there open to you. The African company ſhall enjoy the ſame privileges which they formerly enjoyed. I have given orders to the bey of Conſtantine to afford them every kind of protection.

'10. I have now ſatisfied you reſpecting every article you have deſired me to attend to; and in return you will endeavour to ſatisfy me as I have ſatisfied you.

'11. I have therefore to requeſt of you, that you give orders that the nations that are hoſtile to me ſhould not ſail under your colours or thoſe of the Italian republic, that there may no longer be any ſubject of diſpute between us, for I am anxious to be always on friendly terms with you.

12. I have given orders to my rajies to reſpect the French flag at ſea. I will puniſh the firſt who ſhall bring in a French ſhip into my ports.

'Should there ariſe hereafter any diſcuſſion between us, addreſs yourſelf immediately to me, and every thing ſhall be adjuſted on amicable terms.

'I ſalute you—May God continue you in glory.

'Algiers, the thirteenth of the Moon of Rabiad-Ewell, year one thouſand two hundred and ſeventeen of the Hegira.'

Before I cloſe this report, I ought to obſerve to the Firſt conſul that Hullin, the adjutant commandant of the palace, and the rear admiral Leiſſegues, have acquitted themſelves of the commiſſion entruſted to them with high honour, firmneſs and moderation.

CH. MAU. TALLEYRAND.

CONSERVATIVE SENATE.

Extract from the Regiſters of the Conſervative Senate, 11th Sept.

The conſervative ſenate aſſembled to the number required by the 90th article of the conſtitution. Having ſeen the projet of the ſenatus conſultum, ſet forth in the form preſcribed by the 57th article of the conſtitution of the 4th Auguſt:

Having heard the orators of the government on the cauſes of the ſaid projet, and the report of the ſpecial commiſſion appointed at the ſitting of the 7th inſtant:

The adoption having been deliberated by the number of ſenators preſcribed by the 56th article of the conſtitution, is decreed as follows:—

Art. I. The departments of the Po, the Doria, of Marengo, of Sezia, of Stura, and the Tanaro, are united to the territory of the French republic.

II. The department of the Po ſhall ſend four deputies to the legiſlative body.

The department of Marengo ſhall ſend three.

The department of the Doria ſhall ſend two.

The department of La Sezia ſhall ſend two.

The department of Stura ſhall ſend three.

The department of Tanaro ſhall ſend three.—Making the whole number of the legiſlative body amount to 318.

III. Thoſe deputies are to be named in the eleventh year, and are to be renewed in the year to which the ſeries in which the department they are attached to belongs, with the exception of the deputies

of the Stura, who only go out in the ſixteenth year.

IV. The department of the Po ſhall be claſſed in the firſt ſeries; that of Marengo in the ſecond. The departments of the Doria and the Sezia in the third. The department of the Stura in the fourth, and the Tanaro in the fifth. The city of Turin is to be compriſed in the number of thoſe principal towns of the republic, the mayors of which are to be preſent at the taking of the oath by that citizen who ſhall be appointed to ſucceed the firſt conſul, making the number of ſuch cities amount to twenty-five. The preſent ſenatus conſultum ſhall be ſent with a meſſage to the conſuls of the republic.

(Signed) CAMBACERES,
Second Conſul.
Acting as preſident.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

AUGUST 28.

ON a latter day of February laſt, a child of Jonathan and Elizabeth White, living at Mrs. Holden's, in the Weſt Pallant, Chicheſter, having the care of its infant ſuckling brother, aged ſix months, while in the cradle, put to its mouth a two bladed knife, with a horn or bone handle, (for the preſent appearance of the evacuated fragments do not warrant either concluſion) which the infant ſwallowed with ſome pain, but with no conſequent dangerous ſymptoms. It does not appear that medical aſſiſtance took place, but only that caſtor oil was recommended and given, alſo poppy-water, by the mother, as a narcotic. The infant's linen ſoon aſſumed the appearance of iron mould, and on May 24 (three months after the accident) the ſhorteſt blade was evacuated in a very corroded and diminiſhed ſtate, and on June 16, one half or ſide of the handle was caſt up in a doubled, but not ſoftened ſtate, which, upon attempting to ſtraiten, broke in two at the rivet holes; a piece of iron was at the ſame time caſt up, (probably the living iron) much corroded. Nothing more appeared until Sunday, July 25, when one of the blades came away, corroded but not diminiſhed—Fourthly, on Wedneſday the 11th inſtant, the iron back-piece was caſt up, in a leſs corroded or diminiſhed ſtate than the others; this meaſured near three inches and a half, and is at one end as pointed as a common packing needle. The whole inſtrument thus appears to have come away at the above four times, except the rivets, which, it is preſumed, are either become diſſolved or eſcaped inſpection. The chalybeate property has not only ſhown itſelf upon the infant's linen, but even wood which the fæces have touched, has ineffaceably received the iron mould ſtain. The child is deſcribed as having ſuffered much pain, particularly near the times of the ſeveral voidings taking place; it has rather an emaciated appearance, and has much loathed its food. It has been ſuckled once each day ſince the accident, but it is now more at the breaſt, and there is every reaſon to expect its full recovery. The above principal points are from the notes of a practitioner, who has occaſionally (only) ſeen the infant, and who is in poſſeſſion of ſome of the above extraordinary veſtiges; the mother keeping the remainder. The knife muſt have been full three inches long, and was of the ſort attached to pocket-books.

AUGUST 30.

WARWICK ASSISES.—A cauſe of great importance to the intereſt of all men of landed property, was tried before Mr. juſtice Heath, and a moſt reſpectable ſpecial jury of the county. The queſtion was, whether a payment of 13d. per acre, in lieu of all tythes, great and ſmall, in a lordſhip called Street-fields, in the pariſh of Monks Kirby, in that county, could be ſupported as a modus; it was proved on the part of the occupier, Mr. Cook, by old witneſſes, that no tythe in kind had been ever tendered in the memory of any living perſon, nor any tradition of tythe in kind ever paid; and a proceeding in a cauſe in the year 1681 (which however was not decided) mentioned the payment as conſidered at that time to be an old rate of tythes; the rector inſiſted upon rankneſs, and produced the taxation of pope Nicholas ſo far back as 1291, and ſome very old inquiſitions and returns of the value of the place, to ſhow that, ſince legal time of memory, the whole rectory of Monks Kirby, of which Street-field was only a part, was but of the value of 21l. 6s. 8d. and that, therefore, this payment of 20'. in lieu of the tythes only, of one ſmall part, could not poſſibly have exiſted beyond legal memory, viz. Richard I. which was in the year 1189; but the learned and very experienced judge who had tried the cauſe, explained the law on that ſubject with

great precision, and informed the jury, that unless they could conscientiously find that it was impossible for the payment to have been made as a composition for tythes at that early period, and there was great uncertainty in all the evidence as to the value of the land, and more so of the price of corn, in those early times, it ought to be presumed in favour of the payment, as a modus; for that for the sake of quieting possessions, and the titles to men's estates, the law does not countenance the setting aside such ancient payments, but will presume all that can be presumed in favour of them. The jury without hesitation found for the modus.

His majesty in council has ordered the right hon. the lord high chancellor to issue writs for proroguing the parliament, which was appointed to meet on Tuesday the 31st day of this instant August, to Tuesday the 5th day of October next.

SEPTEMBER 4.

Last week at Barrow, in Lincolnshire, came on such a storm as is not often experienced in this country; torrents of rain and wind from every point of the compass.

At Wittingham and Thrunton on the 28th ult. there was such a storm of thunder as has never been remembered by the oldest person living. It came on about three o'clock in the afternoon, when, in a few minutes, the hemisphere became dark, and several vivid flashes of lightning, with tremendous claps of thunder, instantaneously followed. The equilibrium between the atmosphere and the earth seemed to be totally obstructed for a time, so near to the earth were the clouds from which the fire proceeded. After the thunder somewhat abated, a shower of very large hail-stones followed, that seemed as pieces of ice rather than hail, by which many windows of the villages were broken. A torrent of rain afterward descended, which resembled one sheet of water. A man was killed by the lightning, but recovered soon after.

SEPTEMBER 11.

Bath, Sept. 8.—The curiosity which has been excited in this city and throughout the country round it, in consequence of the engagement of M. Garnerin to ascend from Sydney-Gardens in his balloon yesterday afternoon, was gratified to its amplest extent by the most sublime spectacle ever exhibited here.

The process of filling commenced early in the afternoon. It is exceedingly simple, and was conducted in the following manner:—About thirty hogsheads, containing the iron and vitriolic acid, largely diluted, were disposed in circles; a tube affixed to the head of each vessel conducted the gas produced into another vessel inverted in water, whence the whole accumulated air was conveyed through an oil-skin tube to the bottom of the balloon, which was situated in a railed area in the middle of the grand walk. Immediately before his ascent, in order to give a complete view of the balloon, M. Garnerin, with his companion, Mr. Glassford, was towed, at a slight elevation, to the summit of the walk, and back to the enclosed space. After they had saluted the company, about half past five the machine gradually ascended, sailing slowly and majestically, in the direction of the wind, above the valley, till it was lost behind the hills to the right of Prior-park. The neighbouring eminencies were crowned with gazing multitudes, and richly illumined by the declining sun; streets and roofs of the houses covered with spectators, and the balloon grandly sailing through the blue expanse, presented a picture which can only be conceived by those who were, like ourselves, spectators of the same. About a quarter past seven, M. Garnerin and his companion descended in perfect safety, in a field near Mells, a distance of sixteen miles.—We are happy to have it in our power to present the public with the following occurrences of this very singular voyage, from the pen of M. Garnerin:—

It is with infinite satisfaction that we announce the favourable appearance of weather, which drew from an immense distance thousands of spectators to witness the ascension of M. Garnerin, for the thirtieth time, from Sidney-gardens, which for situation, beauty or ornament, are not to be equalled by any provincial town, and not excelled by the metropolis itself. After having accommodated the public with the opportunity of admiring the process of filling the balloon, he entered the car with Mr. Glassford (who had accompanied him from Vauxhall) and gave them a most unexpected treat by an aerial excursion along the centre walk of the garden, and resuming his original station, he twice made the circle of the rotunda, saluting the company, who appeared anxiously interested for him. About half after five he rose with a gentle breeze from the NE amid the acclamations of thousands of spectators, whose admirations were re-

echoed by millions crowding the neighbouring hills. Upon his aſcent the barometer was 30 deg. and the thermometer 62.10 when his feelings were ſenſibly affected by the tears of intereſt which trickled from the eyes of the fair, and were only relieved by the beautiful and picturesque ſcenes that developed as he roſe majeſtically to purſue his voyage.

M. Garnerin, and Mr. Glaſsfurd, his faithful and valued companion, were enjoying the pleaſures of their ſituation, when at 50 min. paſt 5, they were affected by the cold, and obſerved the thermometer at 52, a difference of 10 deg. ſince they had left the ground.—The barometer was ſunk to 26, which gave an elevation of 3,420 feet. At this height an immenſe horizon preſented itſelf to their view, which incloſed a moſt delightful country in miniature: on the right of which they diſtinctly perceived the ſea, in which the ſetting ſun reflected its beams as from an immenſe looking-glaſs. After being enraptured with the ſublimity of this ſcene till 12 min. paſt 6, they experienced a ſtill greater degree of cold, the thermometer having ſunk to 46, which made an alteration of 16 deg. in the temperature. The barometer had riſen but one-tenth, which indicated that they had only neared the earth 76 feet. M Garnerin aſcribed this intenſe degree of cold to a thick dark cloud which floated above the balloon, which Mr. Glaſsfurd was anxious to paſs, but was oppoſed by M. Garnerin, who, thinking it was electric, did not approve to riſk the danger, and meet the fate of Icarus. They nevertheleſs approached it in ſome degreee, when the thermometer remained the ſame, but the barometer fell 25¾ inches, which gave the height of 3,620 feet!

In this ſituation the inflammable air was conſiderably dilated, and the balloon ſwelled in proportion. They were involved in vapour, and in this ſituation the thermometer ſvnk 3 deg. and ſtood at 43; the barometer had ſunk 24¾, and gave an addition of 274 feet to their former elevation. They were in the heart of a cloud which M. Garnerin thought to be highly charged with electric matter: the balloon being completely dilated, ſeemed to indicate that the leaſt greater elevation would have occaſioned it to burſt by the rarefaction of the atmoſphere, and finding the neceſſity of being diſengaged from this ſituation, he opened one of the lower appendages, which acting expeditiouſly in concert with the upper valve, at 40 min. paſt 6, the thermometer ſunk to 41, but the barometer roſe to 26¼. M. Garnerin eſtimated the thickneſs of the cloud at 1031 feet; from the obſervation of the thermometer it ſhould appear that its baſe was much more condenſed than the upper part, for the cold was ſo ſevere as to oblige them to wrap themſelves in their great coats, as the thermometer was within 4 deg. of the freezing point. At 52 min. after 6 the thermometer roſe to 46, and the barometer roſe to 29, when they judged themſelves at 874 feet from the earth, and were amuſing themſelves over the woods, which alarmed the feathered choir, with whom they appeared to diſpute the element.

M. Garnerin now propoſed to Mr. Glaſsfurd to alight in a meadow which he perceived as eligible to the occaſion, when he ſaid, '*Non, non, aſcendons bien haut*;' in compliance with which M. Garnerin immediately threw out twenty pounds weight of ballaſt, and aſcended with extreme rapidity in a ſpiral line. At 50 min. after 6 they had paſſed through ſeveral clouds, the thermometer falling to 40, and the barometer to 24½; having ſurmounted them all they were now cheered by the rays of the ſetting ſun. At 59 min. paſt 6 they found the thermometer had fallen to 36, and the barometer to 23.1. which leaves the eſtimated height at 5420 feet. The inflammable air having conſiderably dilated, M. Garnerin prepared to deſcend, which he effected at 20 minutes paſt 7, and was greeted by the moſt friendly aſſiſtance and welcome of a great concourſe of people, who were anxiouſly waiting his arrival, when he alighted in a field near Mells park, the ſeat of Thomas Horner, eſq. diſtant 16 miles from Bath.

The following notice was yeſterday circulated by order of the American conſul reſident in London.

AMERICAN CONSULATE.

London, Sept. 9. 1802.

'The conſul of the United States has the ſatisfaction of announcing to his fellow citizens reſident in Great Britain, that by official diſpatches juſt received from Tangier, he is informed of the re-eſtabliſhment of peace between the United States and his highneſs the emperor of Morocco; and that there is no longer any danger to be apprehended from the Mooriſh cruiſers.

GEO. WM. ERVING.'

SEPTEMBER 13.

Feverſham, Sept. 8.—A moſt melan-

choly ſcene was laſt night exhibited at this place:—While the inhabitants were quietly engaged in their ſeveral occupations, little expecting danger, the moſt tremendous exploſion was experienced, by the blowing up of the powder-mill, ſhaking every houſe to the very foundation, doing much damage to the buildings, and deſtroying windows without number. No certain cauſe for the accident can be aſſigned; as on theſe melancholy occaſions, every perſon and thing are ſwept away within a certain diſtance, and no one left to give us the real cauſe. So ſoon as any one would venture near the ſpot, it was diſcovered that five poor fellows and two horſes had loſt their lives, their limbs being ſcattered in all directions by the exploſion. The names of theſe unfortunate men were, Wight, Coveney, Haſtings, Taylor, and Thriſton, all workmen in the mill. On a further ſearch, another poor creature was found, named Symonds, ſtill alive, but dreadfully torn and mingled. Inſtant care was taken of him, and every means uſed to get from him the cauſe of the accident; but he was unable to utter a word, and died in about an hour and a half.

SEPTEMBER 14.

Downing-ſtreet, Sept. 14. A diſpatch has been received from Alexander Straton, eſq. his majeſty's charge d'affaires at the Ottomon Porte, tranſmitting an official note delivered to him by the Reis Effendi, on the 29th of July laſt, relative to the navigation of the Black Sea, of which the following is a copy:

TRANSLATION.

Official Note delivered by the Reis Effendi to Alexander Straton, Eſq. at a Conference in his Excellency's Houſe on the Canal, the 29th July 1802.

It behoves the character of true friendſhip and ſincere regard to promote with cheerfulneſs all ſuch affairs and objects as may be reciprocally uſeful, and may have a rank among the ſalutary fruits of thoſe ſteady bonds of alliance and perfect good harmony which happily ſubſiſt between the ſublime Porte and the court of Great Britain; and as permiſſion has heretofore been granted for the Engliſh merchant ſhips to navigate in the Black Sea for the purpoſes of trade, the ſame having been a voluntary trait of his imperial majeſty's own moſt gracious heart, as more amply appears by an official note preſented to our friend the Engliſh miniſter reſiding at the Sublime Porte, dated 3 Gemaziel Ahir 1214—this preſent 'Takrir' [official note] is iſſued; the imperial Ottoman court hereby engaging, that the ſame treatment ſhall be obſerved toward the Engliſh merchant ſhips coming to that ſea, as is offered to the ſhips of powers moſt favoured by the Sublime Porte, on the ſcore of that navigation.

The 23 Rebiul Evvel 1217 (23d July 1802.)—*London Gazette.*

SEPTEMBER 16.

Yeſterday the ſeſſion commenced at the Old Bailey, before the lord mayor and city officers, and alſo Mr. baron Hotham, Mr. juſtice Le Blanc, and Mr. baron Chambre.

SEPTEMBER 18.

A letter from Liverpool, dated Sept. 15, gives the following diſtreſſing account:—A tremendous fire broke out laſt night at this place, which conſumed the whole of the beautiful and extenſive warehouſes fronting St. George's dock. About ten o'clock ſmoke was obſerved to iſſue from the centre of Francis' Buildings; the fire-bell was inſtantly rung, the drums beat to arms, the whole of the military turned out, and every exertion that active attention could furniſh was rendered. The remains of the Northumberland fencibles were particularly active, commanded by their adjutant. About one the flames burſt forth with great fury, and continued raging, and threatening deſtruction to all around till ſix o'clock in the morning, when they were got ſomewhat under. The fury with which the conflagration raged, its effects will beſt demonſtrate, for all thoſe beautiful and extenſive buildings reaching from Water-lane to Brunſwick-ſtreet, with the correſponding ſtorehouſes called Francis, were, at ſix o'clock in the morning one prodigious heap of ruins! The walls which bounded theſe capacious buildings being from ten to fourteen ſtories high, ſtand perfect, but unſupported; the front has given way, except ſome large ſtone arches which formed its baſis—theſe, as the buildings have fallen, are mutilated, and appear above the heaps of the rubbiſh a perfect picture. George's Dock is one ſcene of confuſion—bales of cotton, puncheons of rum, of ſugar, bags of corn, &c. lying in promiſcuous heaps. The ſhipping, for the dock was full cloſe to the ſpot, were, from its fortunately being flood-tide, removed and preſerved, but every attention was neceſſary, ſuch as wet ſails placed before the rigging, &c. It may be conſidered a fortunate circumſtance that the ſtreets of this populous

town were laid with water-pipes, and the attention paid by the proprietors of the Bootle-ſprings toward furniſhing a ſufficient quantity of water in a great meaſure checked the progreſs of the flames.

Of the immenſe property which has periſhed, no adequate eſtimate can be given, but under the diſaſters of a night, which will long be remembered and deplored, one conſolation remains, that we have not to lament the loſs of a ſingle life.

SEPTEMBER 20.

The London Gazette, of the 18th inſt. contains a proclamation for the further proroguing of parliament from the 5th of October next, to Tueſday the 16th day of November next, and then to meet for the diſpatch of divers urgent and important affairs.

SEPTEMBER 23.

GARNERIN'S BALLOON AND PARACHUTE.

On Tueſday, according to the notice given by advertiſement, preparations were made at St. George's parade, North Audley ſtreet, for this laſt exhibition of Mr. Garnerin's experiments.

The balloon was ſufficiently inflated at four o'clock, but the proceſs was ſtill continued for half an hour more. There were three circles of puncheons under a ſhed at the ſouthern extremity of the parade; each of the outer ones conſiſted of ten and the middle one of twelve, in the centre of which was a larger one acting as a kind of receiver or medium for uniting the tin tubes iſſuing from the other veſſels, and conveying the collected fumes by a ſilk pipe to the balloon. About five, the great ſilk tube was cut, its extremity ſecured, and the balloon, now ready for aſcenſion, was kept down by the people about it.

The pilot balloon, intended to ſhew the direction of the wind, which was about eight feet high and ſix in diameter, aſcended in a very beautiful ſtyle to an immenſe height, and took a NE direction at firſt, marking the route which the great balloon afterward followed.

Mr. Garnerin commenced the preparations of the formidable buſineſs of the parachute. The cotton ſtuff, of which it was compoſed, and which had hitherto laid cloſe about the tin tubes in the centre, in the manner of a ſhut umbrella, was extended at the top by being tied to a hoop of eight feet diameter, with a circular aperture of a foot and a half diameter in the middle. In this aperture terminated the tube containing the rope by which the parachute was to be annexed to the balloon. The ſides of the parachute, as it hung, were about fifteen feet in length. The car which had hitherto remained annexed to the balloon, was now removed, and the netting collected and faſtened to the rope of the parachute; a paper had previouſly been tied to the balloon, offering a reward to thoſe who may find it. At three quarters paſt five, Mr. Garnerin got into the baſket of the parachute, the ſides of which came up to his breaſt. The cords by which it was faſtened to the cotton formed a knot immediately over his head, ſo that it was impoſſible he could fall out. The parachute hung at a conſiderable diſtance from the balloon. The balloon itſelf was about ſixty feet high, and the whole apparatus, when the baſket, in which Mr. Garnerin was, reſted on the ground, could not be leſs than one hundred and twenty feet in height. At ten minutes before ſix, the laſt rope was cut, and the balloon, clearing the north eaſt angle of the parade, roſe in a moſt ſublime and majeſtic manner to an immenſe height, Garnerin waving the tricoloured flag. The clearneſs and ſerenity of the ſky permitted the ſpectacle to be enjoyed in the higheſt perfection during the whole time.

When the balloon was over Tottenham-court road, at a very great height, the duſk of the evening beginning to ſet in, Garnerin cut the rope which ſuſpended the parachute, when it expanded and came ſo gently down, that it ſcarcely ſeemed to move, and the balloon appeared to remain ſtationary. As the parachute came more within view it was perceived to roll and toſs in a moſt extraordinary manner, ſwinging Garnerin from ſide to ſide like the pendulum of a clock: the action was ſo violent, that Garnerin was ſometimes on a level with the parachute itſelf, and fears were entertained that he would be flung over it, and the whole overſet.

When about twenty yards from the ground, Garnerin cut away a weight, which broke the fall, and he landed in a field at the back of the houſes near the road ſide from the Smallpox hoſpital to St. Pancras church. The ſwinging motion which the baſket had while he was deſcending, was much decreaſed as he approached the earth, and when within about twice the height of the houſes, the parachute rather became contracted, and the deſcending motion was more rapid. The baſket in falling, ſtruck the ground on its edge, and fell longways. A man im-

mediately ran to aſſiſt Mr. Garnerin, who for a ſhort time leaned on his arm apparently exhauſted. Garnerin remained recovering his breath and ſtrength about a minute, but the crowd ruſhing in on all ſides, preſſed much round him, inquiring if he was hurt. He ſeemed to wiſh for a reſpite, and waved his hand, as if begging not to be troubled. To ſecure him air, a gentleman mounted him on his horſe. Garnerin recovered his ſpirits, and waved his flag above the heads of the ſpectators, who cheered him in return. The parachute and baſket were rolled up, and ſix men carried them on their ſhoulders to the Adam and Eve. By this time 5000 people and about 50 horſemen, had collected in the field. Garnerin, on horſeback, began to move off toward the Smallpox hoſpital. He was preceded by ſeveral gentlemen on horſeback, clearing the way, one of them carrying his tri-coloured flag.

The balloon and deſcent were well ſeen from all parts of the metropolis. According to M. Garnerin's calculation, he had been to the height of 4154 French feet.

The balloon deſcended on the 22d (Wedneſday) at Mr. Abraham Harding's, near Frencham mill, three miles beyond Farnham, in Surry.

M. Garnerin has ſince publiſhed an account of his aerial experiment, in which is noticed the danger likely to reſult from night balloons. He ſays, 'It is neceſſary, when I undertake the experiment of the parachute, that I ſhould know the ſtate of the atmoſphere, in order to enable me to judge of the courſe I am to take; and alſo to adopt the precautions proper to enſure ſucceſs. About three in the afternoon, I had the ſatisfaction of having a firſt indication from the agreeable effect of a very pretty Montgolfier balloon, which was ſent off from the environs of St. George's parade, and which took a direction over Mary-le-bonne fields.

'The ſucceſs of this experiment ought not to prevent me from expreſſing my opinion of the dangers that may reſult to the general ſafety from the daily abuſe of thoſe night experiments, which are not always directed by perſons converſant with the ſubject. One ſhudders when one thinks, that a machine of this kind may fall, and fall on fire, upon the cordage of a ſhip, and thus involve, in one great conflagration, all that conſtitutes the wealth of one of the firſt cities in the world. The uſe of theſe machines was prohibited in France, and the conſular government confided to me alone the direction of night balloons, which I conceived and introduced into the national fetes.

SEPTEMBER 26.

The number of ſhocks of an earthquake, which have been lately felt at Straſburg, is conſidered as a very remarkable phænomenon. For five or ſix days previous to the 15th, not a day paſſed without a ſhock, more or leſs violent. On the 13th they had three or four ſhocks, and the ſame on the 14th. On the latter day, at three quarters paſt eleven at night, a ſhock was felt extremely violent, which laſted more than a minute. The ſhocks have been accompanied with a loud noiſe, which excites great terror.

SEPTEMBER 27.

On Saturday the ſeſſion ended at the Old Bailey, when Mr. Recorder pronounced ſentence of death upon the twenty two following convicts; George Browne, Joſeph Dyſon, Mary Leith, Benjamin Harper, Thomas Porter, Daniel Biſſex, William Topper, Dennis Burke, Johannah Brady, Walter Bond, William Herbert, John Reynolds, Samuel Booth, F. Riley, Charles Smith, John Roberts, Edward Griffiths, John Norton, Miles Griſter, George Stuart, Henry Elmſted, and John Oliver.

Forty-four were ſentenced to tranſportation, and ſeveral to be impriſoned for twelve months, whipped, and diſcharged.

BIRTHS.

RIGHT hon. lady Amherſt, a ſon.

Lady of H. Warrington, eſq. of Croydon, a daughter.

Lady of lieutenant-colonel Eſpinaſſe, of Twickenham, a daughter.

Hon. Mrs. Irby, a ſon.

MARRIAGES.

LORD viſcount Falkland, to miſs Auton.

Henry Jodrell, eſq. M. P. of Bayfield, to miſs Weyland, eldeſt daughter of John Weyland, eſq. of Woodeaton.

Samuel Hood Linzee, eſq. captain in the navy, to miſs Wooldridge, of Plymouth.

Robert Dallas, eſq. M. P. to miſs Juſtina Davidſon, of Bedford-ſquare.

William Beaden, eſq. of Taunton, to miſs Hammet, daughter of the late John Hammet, eſq. M. P.

John Royds, eſq. to miſs Louiſa Bond.

John Taylor, eſq. of Blackhouſe, to miſs Arabella Fullarton, eldeſt daughter of general Fullarton.

John Henry Stephenſon, eſq. of Great Ormond ſtreet, to miſs Eleanor Smith, daughter of Hugh Smith, eſq. of Bloomſbury.

John Craven, eſq. of Goodman's-fields, to miſs Bowman, daughter of W. Bowman, eſq. of Lombard ſtreet.

Peter Tahourdin, eſq. of Argyle-ſtreet, to miſs Somers, of the ſame place.

Daniel M'Kinlay, eſq. of Size-lane, Bucklerſbary, to miſs Lindo, daughter of Alexander Lindo, eſq. of Finſbury-ſquare.

Anthony Tilly, eſq. of Hetton-houſe, Durham, to miſs Haſwell, only daughter of J. Haſwell, eſq. of Cornforth.

DEATHS.

VISCOUNTESS dowager Southwell.

Right hon. lady Glentworth, relict of the late biſhop of Limerick.

Lady Jane Ferry.

John Eddowes, eſq. aged 81.

Baden Powell, eſq. of Loughton, Eſſex, aged 72.

Mrs. Eliſabeth Dupree, of Iſlington, aged 80.

Hon. Auguſtus Philip Monckton, third ſon of viſcount Galway.

Mrs. Hubbart, of Blackheath, aged 84.

Sir Edward Hales, bart. aged 78.

Alexander Scott, eſq. at St. Andrews, aged 85.

Captain Simon Fraſer, at Liſbon.

Earl of Ilcheſter.

Richard Lawrence, eſq. of Cambervell.

Sir John Farnaby, bart.

W. Newman, eſq. alderman of Farringdon-within.

Earl of Roſs.

Mrs. Elmy, of Beccles, aged 90.

Richard Owen Cambridge, eſq. of Twickenham, aged 85.

Thomas Hinchliff, eſq. of Mitcham.

Martha Anns, of Eaſt Hundred, Berks, aged 100.

Mrs. Ann Clarke, aged 71, ſiſter to J. C. Jervoiſe, eſq.

PROMOTIONS.

ARCHIBALD Dickſon, eſq. admiral of the blue—a baronet.

John Hookham Frere, eſq.—envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary to the court of Madrid.

Lord Robert Stephen Fitzgerald—envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary to the court of Liſbon.

Sir John Borlaſe Warren, bart. K. B.—a privy-counſellor.

Francis James Jackſon, eſq.—envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary to the court of Berlin.

Right hon. ſir Charles Morgan, bart. and the right hon. John Smith—privy-counſellors.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

AUGUST 28.

J. FOX, and W. Fox, Pavement, Finſbury, merchants.

T. Tyne, Southwark, Surry, victualler.

J. Turnbull, J. Forbes, R. A. Crawford, and D. Skene, Broad-ſtreet, merchants.

J. Harding, Turnmill-ſtreet, Clerkenwell, victualler.

AUGUST 31.

G. Mallinſon, and J. Sheard, Hudcersfield, Yorkſhire, dyers.

T. Pyne, Southwark, victualler.

SEPTEMBER 4.

W. Potter, Bath, upholder.

T. Keetley, Sandiacre, in Derbyſhire, timber merchant.

SEPTEMBER 7.

J. Knight the younger, Cannock, Staffordſhire, mercer.

E. Athby, Liverpool, mariner.

J. B. Bolingbroke, and M. A. Bolingbroke, Norwich, woollen-drapers.

SEPTEMBER 11.

T. Fenwick the elder, and T. Fenwick the younger, Boſton, Lincolnſhire, drapers.

M. Tagg, Bath, grocer.

T. Leaver, Mancheſter, cotton-manufacturer.

W. Page, Wood-ſtreet, merchant.

J. Burman, Huddersfield, Yorkſhire, grocer.

F. Morgan, Liverpool, merchant.

SEPTEMBER 14.

G. Brett, Cheſhunt, in Hertfordſhire, grocer.

J. Ribbans, Colcheſter, Eſſex, wine-merchant.

SEPTEMBER 18.

J. Aſhby, Hinckley, Leiceſter, baker.

W. Macfarlane, Bethnall-green, merchant.

T. Leaver, Mancheſter, cotton-manufacturer.

J. Allen, St. Mary-axe, merchant.

P. Lock, Avening, in Glouceſterſhire, clothier.

J. Prager, Norfolk-ſtreet, Strand, broker.

P. Grove, Sparſbrook, Eſſex, baker.

S. Cleaſby, Auſtin-friars, merchant.

SEPTEMBER 21.

J. Gillatt, J. Hawkſworth, and W. Gillatt, Sheffield, common-brewers.

J. Lowe, Little Bolton, in Lancaſhire, butcher.

W. Palmer, Briſtol, victualler.

J. Powell, Villiers-ſtreet, Strand, merchant.

SEPTEMBER 25.

R. Farthing, Blakeney, Norfolk, merchant.

G. Nightingale, Leadenhall-ſtreet, carver and gilder.

T. A. Simkins, Old Swan-lane, Upper Thames-ſtreet, lighterman.

W. Pope, Wood-ſtreet, merchant.

T. Fawcett, Chiſwell-ſtreet, Moorfields, rectifier.

J. Beetzler, Market Deeping, Lincolnſhire, corn-merchant.

R. Tomkinſon, J. Tomkinſon, and D. F. Solicke, Liverpool, merchants.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

DENON's Travels in Egypt, by Aikin, 2 vol. 4to, 4l 4s—and 3 vol. 8vo, 2l 2s.

Goldſmith's Geography for Schools, 8vo, 10s 6d, bound.

Lawrence's Love, an Allegory, with ſeveral Poems and Tranſlations, 12mo, 2s 6d.

Mendoza's Tables of Nautical Aſtronomy, 4to, 1l 11s 6d.

Hooper's Anatomical Plates, diminiſhed from Albinus, 12mo, 5s.

Dibdin's Introduction to the various Editions of the Claſſics, ſmall 8vo, 3s 6d.

Wife of a Million, a Comedy, 2s 6d.

Bell's Engravings of the Brain, royal 4to, 2l 2s.

Boardman's Book keeping, 4to, 5s.

Wallis' Happy Village, a Poem, 4to, 2s 6d.

Debrett's Liſt of the New Parliament, 2s 6d.

Prieſtley's Letter to an Antipœdobaptiſt, 1s 6d.

Jonas' Abridgement of the Exciſe Laws, 8vo, 10s 6d.

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Denny's Treatiſe on the Diſeaſes of Horſes, 8vo, 5s.

Hook's Sketch of the Church and her Clergy, 2s 6d.

Biſhop Watſon's Charge to the Clergy of his Dioceſe, 1802, 2s.

Frederic, from the French, 3 vol. 12mo, 10s 6d.

Strolling Player, or Life of William Templeton, 3 vol. 12mo, 12s.

Picture of Parliament 1802, 12mo, 5s.

Scraggs' Engliſh Compoſition, 12mo, 3s 6d, bound.

Friend of Women, 8vo, 4s.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN,

September 18, 1802.

By the Winchester Quarter of 8 Buſhels.

Inland Counties.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	68	10	37	7	32	9	25	3
Surry	72	8	39	0	35	0	24	2
Hertford	61	4	36	6	29	6	24	0
Bedford	61	11	33	2	34	0	26	0
Huntingdon	63	1	—	—	—	—	16	8
Northampton	57	8	32	0	25	0	25	6
Rutland	65	0	—	—	28	0	—	—
Leiceſter	65	6	—	—	30	4	17	9
Nottingham	73	0	42	6	32	0	22	0
Derby	77	4	—	—	—	—	22	0
Stafford	69	4	—	—	37	0	21	5
Salop	67	11	48	10	—	—	22	9
Hereford	58	7	35	2	27	8	24	0
Worceſter	60	10	39	0	29	7	27	6
Warwick	64	10	36	0	29	6	21	2
Wilts	64	4	—	—	27	0	22	2
Berks	68	3	54	0	30	9	25	0
Oxford	62	5	—	—	27	11	20	4
Bucks	64	0	—	—	34	0	23	0
Brecon	65	7	44	8	27	11	20	0
Montgomery	65	7	—	—	—	—	22	9
Radnor	61	5	—	—	32	0	20	6

Maritime Counties.

Eſſex	66	2	36	6	30	6	25	9
Kent	66	9	—	—	34	3	23	0
Suſſex	65	0	—	—	—	—	25	0
Suffolk	64	0	36	0	29	9	21	6
Cambridge	62	8	—	—	32	0	19	4
Norfolk	62	3	—	—	29	0	—	—
Lincoln	66	5	—	—	32	6	17	4
York	71	6	43	2	—	—	17	3
Durham	77	11	—	—	38	0	21	0
Northumberland	66	2	40	2	29	4	19	5
Cumberland	80	3	60	0	32	6	22	6
Weſtmorland	88	6	56	6	30	2	23	11
Lancaſter	77	2	—	—	39	9	19	9
Cheſter	67	1	—	—	—	—	21	3
Flint	81	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
Denbigh	81	0	—	—	—	—	24	0
Angleſea	None		bro't		for Sale		—	—
Carnarvon	72	0	—	—	32	8	18	0
Merioneth	73	6	48	0	36	3	22	0
Cardigan	62	2	—	—	—	—	12	8
Pembroke	61	9	—	—	26	10	—	—
Carmarthen	62	8	—	—	30	0	—	—
Glamorgan	68	5	—	—	28	0	21	8
Glouceſter	65	3	—	—	28	0	21	10
Somerſet	61	9	—	—	24	10	19	2
Monmouth	67	6	—	—	—	—	—	—
Devon	62	2	—	—	23	10	25	11
Cornwall	65	4	—	—	23	0	17	9
Dorſet	62	8	29	0	—	—	24	0
Hants	62	4	—	—	27	1	24	0

Average of England and Wales.

Per Quarter	67	3	42	4	30	5	21	8

September 24—Peck Loaf 3s 4d.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, Auguſt 1802.

D.	H	Baro.	T.out	T.in.	H.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c. Rain 0,56
1	7	30,24	55	60	56	1	W 1	. little cloudy at times
	2	30,30	66,5	63	50	3	W 1	. more cloudy at times: little wet
2	7	30,33	59,5	62	57	5	W 1	gentle rain or drizzling: fair
	2	30,31	63,5	62,5	58	5	WSW 1	. drizzly at times
3	7	30,29	62	63,5	65	5	WSW 1	hazy. leſs cloudy
	2	30,29	72	66	57	4	W 1	. fine
4	7	30,26	62	65	59	1	WSW 1	hazy
	2	30,22	76	69	52	1	WSW 1	hazy. wind NW
5	7	30,20	62,5	66	63	h	E 1	not cloudy. fine
	2	30,18	78,5	71	57	1	SSE 1	. more cloudy eve
6	7	30,19	68	70	52	2	SW 1	. thick upward. wind W and fine
	2	30,23	74,5	70	47	2	WSW 2	. cloudy. fine
7	7	30,10	61	66	56	2	SSW 2	
	2	30,11	74 5	70	52	3	WSW 2	. more cloudy night
8	7	30,13	62	66,5	55	4	WSW 1	. fine
	2	30,12	75,5	70,5	46	2	SW 2	
9	7	30,04	64,5	68	56	3	SSW 1	hazy: cloudy. little rain
	2	29,97	70	72,5	53	5	W 1	little rain. fine
10	7	29,97	63,5	65	56	3	W C	hazy. wind E and more cloudy
	2	29,94	78	73	52	4	E 1	. more wind S and fine
11	7	30,00	63	68	54	4	W 2	. fine
	2	30,10	73,5	70	45	3	WSW 1	. cloudy eve: little rain
12	7	30,12	61	66	56	h	S 1	drizzling. fine
	2	30,22	71	68,5	45	3	W 1	
13	7	30,40	56	63	52	1	W O	hazy. wind by N to E
F	2	30,42	75,5	66	45	2	E 1	
14	7	30,42	58	63	55	3	E O	hazy
	2	30,42	72	67,5	45	2	E 1	
15	7	30,52	58	63	53	1	E 1	
	2	30,32	74	68	43	1	SSW 1	
16	7	30,23	62	65	52	4	W 1	
	2	30,25	73	70	50	3	WNW 1	
17	7	30,27	66	68,5	55	2	N O	. wind S
	2	30,24	77,5	72	46	2	S 1	
18	7	30,10	63	68	50	2	SE 1	
	2	30,04	79	72	40	2	S 2	. more cloudy eve and calm
19	7	29,99	64	68,5	53	5	SSW O	. little wind and fine
	2	30,00	74	70,5	46	3	SW 2	. little wet. cloudy eve. fine
20	7	30,05	61,5	67	54	1	SW 2	. cloudy
	2	30,03	67,5	68	47	4	SSW 2	. little wet. fine
21	7	30,03	61,5	66	54	1	SW 1	
	2	30,07	72	68	45	3	WSW 2	. cloudy night
22	7	30,11	61,5	66,5	54	5	SW 1	chiefly fine
	2	30,09	72	67	51	5	SW 3	. little wet and chiefly cloudy. leſs wind
23	7	30,09	64	68	57	4	SW 1	. fine
	2	30,00	77	71,5	45	2	SW 2	. lightning in the E at eve: cloudy
24	7	29,97	64,5	69	55	4	SSW 1	: gentle ſhower and more wind
	2	29,87	72,5	70,5	50	3	SSW 3	. little rain. clear night. more wind. leſs wind
25	7	29,89	57,5	63,5	51	O	WSW 2	. little cloudy at times: gentle ſhower
	2	30,02	63,5	66	47	3	W 2	. clear night: cloudy
26	7	30,16	56	63,5	51	5	WSW 1	. little wet at times: drizzling
	2	30,23	59,5	64	52	h	W 1	continual drizzling. fair eve. not cloudy
27	7	30,32	54	60,5	55	h	W 1	little rain. fine but hazy
	2	30,35	64,5	63	47	h	W 1	not cloudy. thick upward. drizzly eve. rain:
28	7	30,36	63	65	61	1	W 1	. thick upward. fine [fine
N	2	30,40	73,5	68	56	2	W 1	
29	7	30,43	59,5	65,5	60	h	W O	not cloudy. fine
	2	30,40	75	70	54	O	WSW 1	
30	7	30,32	60	66,5	58	h	S O	. fine
	2	30,28	75	70	53	O	S 1	hazy. clear night: thick upward. little wet
31	7	30,26	64	68,5	63	h	E 1	drizzly. fair
	2	30,28	66,5	68,5	61	h	E 1	. fine

PRICES of STOCKS, from AUGUST 30 to SEPTEMBER 28, 1800, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stockbroker, No. 29, Princes-Street, Lothbury.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. Anns.	Old 5 per C. Conf.	New 5 per C. Anns.	Long Anns.	Short Anns.	India Stock.	Imperial 3 per C.	Imperial Ann.	Exc. Bills 3d per day	Exc. Bills 3½d p. day	English Lot. Tic.
30	185	68 ⅞	67⅞a68¼		100 ¼	102 ½	20 ⅛		204			3s d.f.	3s. pr.	
31	184 ½	68 ⅞	68a67⅞	86 ¼	100 ⅛	102 ½	20 ⅛	5	204 ½	67 ⅜		3	3	
1	183	68 ¼	67¼a67⅛	85 ¼		102	20 ⅛	5	203	66 ¾	12 ⅛	3	4	
2														
3	183	shut.	67⅝a68	86 ¼		103 ½	20 ¼		203 ½	67 ⅛	12 ⅛			
4	shut.		67⅞a68¼	86 ¼	100 ¼	shut.	shut.	5			12 ⅛	1	5	
6			68 ⅞	shut.	100 ⅜			5	shut.	68 ¼	12 ⅛	1s pr.	5	
7			68⅛ ⅜		100 ⅜			shut.		68 ¼	12 ⅛	1	4	
8			68⅛ ⅜		100 ⅜					68 ¼	12 ⅛	1	4	
9			68⅛ ⅜		100 ⅜						12 ⅛	1	4	
10			68⅛ ⅜		100 ⅜						12 ⅛	2s dif.	3	
11			68⅛ ⅜		100 ⅜						12 ⅛	3	2	
13			68⅛ ⅜		100 ⅜					68	12 ⅛	2	2	
14			68⅛ ⅜		100 ⅜					68	12 ⅛	2	3	
15			68⅞a69¼		101 ¼					68 ¼		3	3	
16			69¼a70⅜		101 ¼						12 ⅛	2	3	
17			70¼a69¾		101 ¼					69 ¼	12 ⅛	2	3	
18			69¼70		101 ¼					69 ¼	12 ⅛	2	3	
20			69¼470		101 ¼					69 ½		2	3	
21														
22														
23			69¼a68¾		101 ⅛					68 ⅞	12 ¼	2	2	
24			68¾a69¼		101 ⅛					68	12 ¼	2	2	
25			69a69⅜		101 ⅛						12 ¼	2	2	
27			68⅞a69⅛		101 ¼					68 ⅛	12 ⅛	2	2	
28			69⅛a69¼		101 ¼					68	12 ¼	2	2	

☞ In the 3 per Cent. consols. the highest and lowest Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the highest Price only, the Long, Short, and Imperial Annuities excepted, which are given within a sixteenth of the highest Price. In the different Funds that are shut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.